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By -Bittner, Marguerite L.; And Others

An Evaluation of the Preschool Readiness Centers Program in East St. Louis, Illinois, July 1, 1967-June 30, 1968. Final Report.

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Five groups of children were tested, and their test performances were compared. Experimental group one (X-1) consisted of 105 children who had attended a yearlong Preschool Readiness Center program. Experimental group two (X-2) consisted of 93 children who had attended a summer Head Start program. Control groups one and two (C-1 and C-2) consisted of 79 low income children with no preschool training. Control group three (C-3) consisted of 59 middle income children with no preschool experience. All preschool children were tested upon entry into their particular program by means of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, the Preschool Inventory, and the California Test of Personality. All children were tested upon entry into the first grade by means of the above three measures plus the Metropolitan Readiness Test. In May 1968, during the end of their first-grade year, all children were administered the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT). A comparison of these results showed that upon entry into the first grade, group X-1 performed the best of all groups on the four measures, with group C-3 second best. Group C-3 scored significantly better than all other groups on the MAT, group X-1 not performing significantly better than X-2, C-1, and C-2. Thus, group X-1's initial superior performance was not sustained over the first year of school. It was discovered that children whose parents did not participate in the programs demonstrated the poorest test performances. (WD)

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AN EVALUATION OF THE
PRESCHOOL READINESS CENTERS PROGRAM
IN EAST ST. LOUIS, ILLINOIS

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CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF CRIME,
DELINQUENCY, AND CORRECTIONS

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
EAST ST. LOUIS, ILLINOIS

FINAL REPORT

AN EVALUATION OF THE PRESCHOOL READINESS CENTERS PROGRAM
IN EAST ST. LOUIS, ILLINOIS

JULY 1, 1967 - JUNE 30, 1968

PROJECT HEAD START
DIVISION OF RESEARCH AND EVALUATION
OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY

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Prepared by:

Marguerite L. Bittner, Research Director
Readiness Centers Evaluation Project

Robert E. Rockwell, Program Director
Readiness Centers Evaluation Project

Charles V. Matthews, Director
Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections

Southern Illinois University
East St. Louis, Illinois 62201

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PROBLEM

Historically research on group settings of child development did not get under way until the 1920's when a number of nursery schools were opened for research and training purposes. Most of these were associated with colleges or universities. It had been hypothesized that a nursery school designed to provide experience and stimulate intellectual curiosity would produce accelerated mental growth. Research was aimed at measuring change. Most of the research and evaluation studies of the effects of nursery school experience were done in the period between 1925 and 1940. Many of the findings were contradictory, but in most cases no appreciable change was reported. The specific nature and content of the program may have been involved, but as a generalization it can be said that research results have been inconclusive and contradictory. Where similar studies have been carried out on groups of children from less advantaged backgrounds, more consistently positive results have occurred.

In 1965 increasing awareness of, and concern over the detrimental influence of poverty on the young child resulted in a massive program by the Federal Government called Operation Head Start. The program was designed to provide instruction during the summer months for large numbers of preschool children from economically depressed areas. Later year-round Head Start programs were developed in many communities.

Concomitantly projects were initiated which were designed to evaluate the effects of these programs on the child's academic achievement, and personal and social adjustment. Research already completed indicates that many of the programs have had a measure of success. The degree of success seems to depend on the emphasis of the particular program and the quality of the teachers. Preschool experience also seems to contribute to the development of social skills and emotional maturity.

Because preschool programs for the disadvantaged are relatively new, no extended follow-up studies have been completed. While it is generally conceded that preschool programs for the disadvantaged child can effect both IQ gain and increased school readiness, it is not known if preschool experience alone can help the culturally deprived youngster maintain successful performance and achievement in school.

OBJECTIVES

There are six preschool readiness centers now in operation in East St. Louis serving 270 preschool children. Five of these centers were set up as a service project funded under sub-contract with the Office of Economic Opportunity. The objectives of the centers are the development of effective cognitive skills for the children of the lower socio-economic class, the broadening of parents' understanding of the needs of preschool children, and strengthening of parents' motivation and aspirations for the education of their children.

The first center was opened as a pilot project in a church in East St. Louis with funds provided by the Office of Education and the American Lutheran Church. Need for trained personnel in the proposed centers prompted the development of a curriculum and training program designed to train ADC recipients, high school drop-outs and unemployed residents of the community to work in child care centers. The five additional centers were staffed with teachers and aides who had completed a sixteen-week training program and practicum funded by the Office of Education. (Contract No. OE-6-85-040.)

Evaluation of the success or failure of preschool centers staffed with trained sub-professionals seemed to be a vital correlate of the program. It was hypothesized that disadvantaged children who participated in the preschool readiness center program would be better prepared (as measured by certain objective test scores) to compete with children from the same socio-economic level who did not have such experience. Implicit in the verification of this hypothesis is the justification of using trained non-professional persons as teachers and teacher-aides in the preschool centers.

In addition to the use of sub-professionals the structure of the centers was designed to facilitate evaluation of the effects of age at intervention and treatment intensity. Each center had three classes composed of 15 children. Children from 2½ to 6 years were accepted. Two of the classes met two half-days a week; the other class met four half-days a week. Age groups and schedules were set up for each center to allow assessment of the effect of differing age at entry and schedule combinations. Because of the rapid turnover of children in these highly mobile center areas, the schema for age groups and age at entry combinations was impossible to maintain.

Thus, the study reported here has certain limitations. It is not based upon a rigid experimental model, but represents a compromise dictated by practical considerations. It was, for example, impossible to pre-test the control groups, whereas the children comprising the experimental group I were tested on admission to the center program. Ideally the control children should have been tested at the same time to take into account practice effect as well as experimental conditions. Practice effect would seem to be more pertinent to the PPVT and the Preschool Inventory; the Metropolitan Readiness Test was new to all the children. Nevertheless, the children in experimental group I were more likely to feel at ease in a testing situation. The study, then, is more accurately conceived of as an attempt to evaluate a demonstration preschool program which has been in operation in East St. Louis since 1965. As such, generalizations must be made with caution.

Furthermore, difficulties often arise when the program being evaluated cannot be controlled by the evaluator. In this case the research staff was faced not so much with lack of cooperation as delay in implementing agreed upon changes in the preschool program, and in the failure to follow agreed upon procedures. These unforeseen exigencies required some modification of the original research design. Nevertheless, the overall design and objectives remain relatively unchanged and some of the findings would seem to have a certain degree of relevance for other Head Start centers and preschool programs.

The research reported here was funded by Project Head Start, Division of Research and Evaluation, Office of Economic Opportunity and involves the follow-up and evaluation of academic progress and performance of children experiencing the Preschool Readiness Center program. (See Appendix A for summary of the structure and various components of the program.)

The primary objectives of the study were:

1. To determine the effect of preschool experience on the personal and social adjustment and school readiness and achievement of the deprived child.
2. To determine what combination of age at intervention and treatment intensity was most effective.
3. To assess the effects of parent involvement on child's academic performance.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

East St. Louis, Illinois is a singularly depressed city of 80,000 population. In 1960 the East St. Louis population was about 45% Negro. Continued immigration of Negroes from the South and emigration of whites has increased that percentage to approximately 60%. The overall unemployment rate is almost four times that of the national rate. In 1963 the median income for white households was \$5,125; for Negro households the median income was \$2,509.¹

The present situation in East St. Louis has its roots in a long history of interrelated social and political problems. Labor strife, political exploitation and the continued loss of industry, together with increased in-migration of Negroes from the rural South has brought about wide-spread unemployment, poverty and despair.

¹ East St. Louis Unemployment Study, Metropolitan Affairs Study Project, Southern Illinois University, 1964.

Increasingly large sums of Federal money are currently being expended in East St. Louis on training programs for the unskilled, improved education for adults and children, and in the razing and rebuilding of some of the city's most deteriorated neighborhoods. Nevertheless, unemployment remains high, industrial production continues to decline and the flight to the suburbs accelerates.

This, then, is the milieu from which the sample children were drawn.

The intensive treatment group, Experimental Group I (X-1) was comprised of 105 first grade children who had experienced the Preschool Readiness Center program. A descriptive summary of these children may be found in Appendix B.

The second treatment group (X-2) consists of 93 children from center areas who had attended the Summer Head Start program, but who did not take part in the year-round preschool program. These two groups were comparable on socio-economic indices, neighborhood areas and age.

Control Group I (C-1) was selected from school records. These were children from low income families who were attending center area schools and who had no prior preschool experience.

Control Group II (C-2) consisted of children with no preschool experience who were attending schools outside a center area, but who were from similarly low income families.

Control Group III (C-3) was composed of children from middle income families. These were children with no preschool experience who also were attending the center area schools.

The five experimental and control groups comprise a total of 336 first grade children:

X-1	105
X-2	93
C-1	41
C-2	38
C-3	59

It was planned originally to have a control group of 'middle class' children rather than 'middle income' children. However, very little information about the child's family is available on school records, consequently, the control group was chosen by the principals and teachers on the basis of father's occupation or personal knowledge of the family. The children chosen, for the most part, were from 'working class' families and not what is generally termed middle class. It was conceded that it would be nearly impossible to obtain a sample of middle class children in the inner-city schools of East St. Louis.

In order to investigate some of the actual differences between the two control groups, a sample of 40 middle income and low income children was selected and the parents interviewed. Analysis of the interview data, as well as the enrollment information for X-1 children seemed to confirm the assumption that the middle income children, although not strictly middle class, did not come from the same population as the low income and preschool center children.

Information about the families of children in the experimental group was available from the enrollment form filled out by the parents at the time of child's enrollment into the center program. Interviewers of sample control group families collected similar pertinent data on family background. No background data was available on the families of X-2 children (Summer Head Start), but by the nature of the program it could be expected that these families were similar to those of the X-1 children.

It was apparent that the children of X-1 and C-1 and C-2 (low income) groups came from similarly deprived homes, but that there were important differences between these children and the middle income (C-3) children living in the same neighborhoods. Some of the major differences had to do with parent education; parents of middle income children were better educated. All had completed grade school; 70 percent of the fathers and 80 percent of the mothers had completed high school and 40 percent of the fathers had attended college.

Conversely, some of the parents of children in control groups 1 and 2 had not completed grade school, and none had attended college. Mothers were likely to have more education than fathers. Less than 25 percent of the fathers had finished high school. The fathers of X-1 children had more years of schooling than the mothers, but less than half of them had finished high school.

The greatest contrast between the groups was where parents received their education. Only one-third of the mothers of children in control groups 1 and 2 attended school in East St. Louis; the majority attended school in the South. Similarly, over 75 percent of the fathers and 70 percent of the mothers of X-1 children were born in the South. On the other hand, over 60 percent of C-3 mothers were educated in East St. Louis. Parents, then, of X-1 and C-1 and C-2 children not only had a lower educational level, but in all likelihood one of poorer quality.

Another distinct difference between the groups was the presence or absence of a father in the home. In most of the middle income homes the father was present and employed. Less than half of the children in X-1 and C-1 and 2 groups had a father living at home. Where the father was present, approximately half were unemployed. In addition to the fact that C-3 fathers were employed, about half of the mothers were also employed as compared with only 10 percent of X-1 mothers. Over half of the families of X-1 and C-1 and 2 children received financial assistance from ADC.

It was concluded that the X-1 and Control 1 and 2 children come from similar family background, and that this background differs in certain important aspects from that of the middle income children who live in the same neighborhoods and attend the same schools.

DATA AND INSTRUMENTATION

Cross sectional data on the children in Experimental Group I was obtained from an enrollment information form completed when the child enrolled in the preschool program. Additional information was obtained for approximately half of the children during home visits by the social worker.

Within a few weeks after the child entered the program the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) and Pre-school Inventory (PI) were administered. Admittedly, the PPVT has some limitations for testing disadvantaged children. Experience in testing children from the lower socio-economic class in an experimental nursery school program in Philadelphia indicated that the best measure of assessing effects of the nursery school program was the Stanford-Binet Test. It was found that the IQ scores derived from the PPVT were an average of 13 points lower than those derived from the other verbal and non-verbal tests used. These include the Draw-A-Man, Philadelphia Verbal Abilities Test and the Stanford-Binet. Nevertheless, the limitations of the PPVT do not seem to be particularly pertinent to this project. Scores were used primarily to make comparisons between groups and to measure pre-post gains in at least one area of intellectual development.

In an attempt to measure change in the child's personal and social adjustment, a modified and shortened version of the California Test of Personality was given to the five-year olds during the summer of 1967.

All experimental and control group children were tested upon entry into the first grade by means of the PPVT, the Preschool Inventory, The California Test of Personality and the Metropolitan Readiness Test. In May 1968 the sample children were given the Metropolitan Achievement Test. In addition, after two months of school each of the sample children was rated by the teacher on degree of personal adjustment, as well as school adjustment and readiness. Other data pertaining to child's progress in habits and attitudes, as well as progress in school subjects, was obtained from school records.

COMPARATIVE TEST RESULTS

The Preschool Readiness Centers Program placed emphasis on verbalization and concept development; thus, it could be expected that the children in Experimental

Group I would score significantly higher on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, a measurement of verbal ability.

The X-1 children, of course, were accustomed to taking tests and were more likely to be comfortable in the test situation. The X-2 group (children experiencing Summer Head Start only) also had some experience with the testing situation during the course of the eight week Summer Head Start program. However, for most of the children the test taking situation, as well as school experience, was largely unfamiliar and perhaps frightening. Then, too, while unfamiliarity with test taking has some effect on the middle class child's performance, it is likely to have an even greater effect on the performance of the disadvantaged child.

Nonetheless, in spite of the recognized weaknesses and biases of the tests and testing situations, it was felt that the scores would provide a valid measure of the functioning level of the child faced with the demands of an educational situation.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

Comparative mean IQ scores for the children tested on entry into first grade are presented in Table I. The t test was used as the test of significance of differences between the group means.

Table I

COMPARATIVE MEAN PPVT SCORES OF STUDY CHILDREN

<u>Group</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
X-1	88.7	
X-2	74.4	$p < .001$
C-1, C-2	72.6	$p < .001$
C-3	77.4	$p < .001$

The children experiencing the Readiness Centers Program scored significantly higher on the PPVT than the other experimental and control groups, but it is evident that while the preschool program seemed to increase the child's verbal ability substantially, the derived scores, nevertheless, remain depressed.

The mean IQ score for X-1 children actually represents a post-test score. The initial PPVT was administered shortly after the children entered the center program. The mean pre-intervention IQ score for these children was 77.6, not significantly different from the pre IQ scores of the other groups.

The Preschool Inventory

The Preschool Inventory was administered along with the PPVT to all sample children upon entry into first grade.

Table II presents the comparative mean sub-scores for each of the experimental and control groups.

Table II

COMPARATIVE MEAN PI SCORES OF STUDY CHILDREN

	<u>Compre- hension</u>	<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Non- Verbal</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	<u>Total</u>
X-1	21.7	12.7	16.6	15.3	66.0
X-2	19.5***	11.5**	15.5*	13.6**	60.1***
C-1,C-2	19.6***	11.2**	15.2**	11.8**	57.6***
C-3	20.5*	12.4	15.6*	14.3	61.5*

* $p = < .05$ ** $p = < .01$ *** $p = < .001$

It can be seen that the X-1 children scored significantly higher on all sections of the Preschool Inventory than X-2 and C-1 and C-2 children. There was no difference, however, in mean scores on the number or verbal sections between the X-1 and C-3 children. It had been expected that there would be little difference between groups on the non-verbal portion and a greater difference on the verbal portion. This expectation was not confirmed.

The California Test of Personality

A modified, shortened version of the California Test of Personality was given to all sample children. Even with the shortened version there was some question of its validity for a disadvantaged preschool population. Some children simply refused to answer certain questions at all, particularly those which seemed to have some emotional impact.

Some children seemed to react with a 'response set', answering 'no' or 'yes' to every question. If the tester suspected a response set he could determine this by asking a question with an obviously opposite response. If the child continued to answer the same way the test was discarded. Since many of the student testers were relatively untrained and unsophisticated, a number of these tests may not have been detected.

It was expected that the X-1 children would score higher than the control children on personal and social adjustment. While in each case the mean score for X-1 children was higher than that of the other groups, the differences were not significant. Table III presents comparative mean scores for the modified California Test of Personality.

Table III

COMPARATIVE CTP SCORES FOR SAMPLE CHILDREN

	<u>Personal Adjustment</u>	<u>Social Adjustment</u>
X-1	22.0	24.8
X-2	21.0	23.7
C-1, C-2	20.7	23.6
C-3	21.7	24.0

The Metropolitan Readiness Test

The Metropolitan Readiness Test was given to all study children within a month after the schools opened in the fall.

Comparing results with national norms the study children as a whole scored much lower. The East St. Louis School District has recently opened several kindergarten classes which serve approximately 300 disadvantaged pre-school children. Until city-wide kindergartens are opened readiness test scores are not necessarily indicative of the child's future performance. It is more helpful to interpret scores based on local experience.

A comparison of mean MRT scores for each of the experimental and control groups revealed that X-1 children scored significantly higher on the test than X-2 children. They also scored significantly higher than Control Groups 1 and 2. It had been expected that the X-1 children would score as high as the C-3, middle income children attending these same schools. This expectation was confirmed. The table below presents comparative mean sub-scale scores on the MRT for the several groups.

Table IV

COMPARATIVE MEAN MRT SCORES FOR STUDY CHILDREN

	<u>Mean- ing</u>	<u>Listen- ing</u>	<u>Match- ing</u>	<u>Alpha</u>	<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Copy- ing</u>	<u>MRT Total Score</u>
X-1	7.0	9.8	5.7	7.0	9.7	5.8	45.0
X-2	6.2*	8.3**	4.8	5.9	7.7**	4.5*	37.3***
C1,C2	5.7**	8.5**	4.1**	5.4**	7.1**	4.5*	35.3***
C3	6.7	9.0	5.4	7.9	9.7	5.9	44.4

*p < .05

**p < .01

*** p < .001

The Metropolitan Achievement Test

In May of 1968 the Metropolitan Achievement Test was administered to as many of the sample children as could be readily located. Children attending schools in East St. Louis School District #187 are given the California Achievement Test, and because of time limitations were not retested with the Metropolitan Achievement Test. These children, thus, are not included in the sample. Their exclusion may tend to lower the mean MAT scores of the X-1 children slightly.

Table V

COMPARATIVE MEAN MAT SCORES FOR STUDY CHILDREN

	<u>Word Knowledge</u>	<u>Word Discrimination</u>	<u>Reading</u>	<u>Arithmetic</u>
X-1	21.7	21.7	18.0	37.7
X-2	19.3	21.6	15.5	36.7
C-1, C-2	20.1	19.5	17.7	36.7
C-3	27.2***	27.1**	23.7**	45.2*

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

It can be seen that while the X-1 children began the year with significantly higher scores on the PPVT and the MRT than the children of groups X-2 and C-1, C-2, by the end of the school year the differences in achievement as measured by the sub-scales of the Metropolitan Achievement Test were not significant.

Upon entry into first grade the X-1 children scored significantly higher on the PPVT and scored somewhat higher, though not significantly so, on the Metropolitan Readiness Test than the C-3 (middle income) children. At the end of the first grade the middle income children scored significantly higher on each of the Metropolitan Achievement Test sub-scales than any of the other experimental and control groups.

Teacher Evaluation

In early November and again in May the first grade teachers were asked to complete a rating form for each of the study subjects. The scale consisted of three parts: school adjustment, personal adjustment and school readiness.

At the beginning of the school year the middle-income children were rated significantly higher than the other groups on each of the three variables. At the end of the year they were still rated significantly higher than the other groups, with the exception of X-1 on school readiness. No other variable was significant at the end of the year.

Table VI

MEAN TEACHER-EVALUATION SCORES

	<u>School</u>		<u>Personal</u>		<u>School</u>	
	<u>Adjustment</u>		<u>Adjustment</u>		<u>Readiness</u>	
	<u>Pre</u>	<u>Post</u>	<u>Pre</u>	<u>Post</u>	<u>Pre</u>	<u>Post</u>
X-1	9.7	10.3	17.4	17.8	17.1	17.8
X-2	9.7	10.1	17.6	17.4	16.8	17.1
C-1, C-2	9.1	9.7	16.4	17.1	14.8	16.5
C-3	10.7	10.9	18.6	18.2	19.0	19.4

Although both experimental groups at the beginning of the year were rated significantly lower on school readiness than the middle income children, they, nonetheless, were rated significantly higher at the beginning of the school year than the low-income children with no preschool experience. By the end of the year this difference was not significant. There was no significant pre-post difference on the three variables for any of the groups.

School Grades

School grades were obtained at the end of the school year for all sample children. The letter grades assigned by the teachers were converted to numbers as follows:

- 4 - (E)xceptional Progress
- 3 - (A)cceptable Progress
- 2 - (I)mprovement Needed
- 1 - (F)ailure

Table VII

COMPARATIVE MEAN FIRST AND FOURTH QUARTER GRADES

	<u>READING</u>		<u>WRITING</u>		<u>ARITHMETIC</u>
	<u>First</u>	<u>Fourth</u>	<u>First</u>	<u>Fourth</u>	<u>Fourth</u>
	<u>Quarter</u>	<u>Quarter</u>	<u>Quarter</u>	<u>Quarter</u>	<u>Quarter</u>
X-1	2.47	2.43	2.46	2.61	2.42
X-2	2.28	2.51	2.36	2.67	2.42
C-1, C-2	2.38	2.33	2.17	2.34	2.34
C-3	2.68	2.86	2.59	2.92	2.76

Middle income children (C-3) received consistently higher grades than the children in other groups. Summer Head Start children made low reading grades initially, but by the end of the school year had surpassed the children who had been in the Preschool Readiness Program.

In terms of grades the greatest gains were made by the middle income children and those who experienced the Summer Head Start program. The Preschool children had significantly higher Metropolitan Readiness Test scores than the X-2 children and had higher average grades at the end of the first quarter, but contrary to expectations, they did not maintain equal relative progress.

Although there was no significant difference between the groups in the number of days absent during the school year, the middle income children had somewhat fewer absences than the other groups with an average of 9.4 days. The X-2 children had the highest number of absences with an average of 12.5 days.

Perhaps a more cogent indication of relative progress of the experimental and control groups is the promotion rate. Conditional promotion is usually contingent upon the child attending a summer school or tutorial program.

Table VIII

COMPARATIVE PROMOTION RECORD OF STUDY CHILDREN

	<u>X-1</u>		<u>X-2</u>		<u>C-1,2</u>		<u>C-3</u>	
	<u>#</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>#</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>#</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>#</u>	<u>%</u>
Promoted	69	65.7	57	66.3	41	58.6	45	83.3
Retained	30	28.6	27	31.4	26	37.1	8	14.8
Cond.) Promotion)	6	5.7	2	2.3	3	4.3	1	1.9

The middle income children have a significantly higher promotion rate than any of the other groups. Again, the children with no preschool experience perform least well. There is, however, no statistically significant difference between the promotion rate of the X-1 or X-2 children and the low income children with no preschool experience.

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP I, EXAMINATION OF SOME CENTER EXPERIENCE VARIABLES

One of the stated objectives of the preschool readiness evaluation was to determine what combination of age at intervention and treatment intensity was most effective in terms of child's school readiness and achievement. Another was to assess the effect of parent participation on child's academic achievement as measured by school records and certain objective test scores.

Parent Participation

In an attempt to determine the effect of parent participation on child's achievement, the center staff was asked to rate parent participation on a four point scale. Each parent was given a rating by the Head Teacher, the Teacher Aide and the Family Worker. The staff was asked to assign a number (1-2-3-4) to each parent.

- 1 represented no parent participation
- 2 represented poor parent participation
- 3 represented fair parent participation
- 4 represented good parent participation

Consideration was given to attendance at parent meetings, general interest shown in the program and volunteer work both in and out of the center.

Ratings given the parent by each of the three center staff members were surprisingly unanimous. Twenty percent of the parents did not participate at all in the program and thirty percent were rated as good. Half of the parents received only poor to fair ratings.

Examination of parent participation and IQ of the child seemed to indicate that the role of the parent in child's achievement begins long before the child enters the center program and will, doubtless, continue long after the child leaves the program. This role may be conducive to learning or it may be deleterious. For example, a comparison of pre IQ scores of the children whose parents were later rated on degree of participation suggests that the effects were measurable prior to participation. It seems probable that it is the parent and not the participation that has an effect on child's achievement.

Table IX

COMPARATIVE PRE-POST SCORES BY
DEGREE OF PARENT PARTICIPATION

<u>Participation</u>	<u>Average Pre IQ</u>	<u>Average Post IQ</u>
None	67.8	78.5
Poor	76.8	91.5*
Fair	80.3*	90.0*
Good	83.5**	92.7**

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As the table above indicates, there is a significant difference in pre IQ score between children whose parents were rated as poor participants or did not participate at all and those whose parents were rated as 'fair' or 'good'. On the post-test children whose parents did not participate at all scored significantly lower than children whose parents did participate, if only minimally.

However, when the amount of IQ gain for degree of parent participation was examined it was found that gains significant at the .05 level were made by the children whose parents were rated as 'poor' or 'fair' participants. The children whose parents were rated as 'poor' participants actually made the greatest gains. Those children whose parents did not participate at all did not make significant gains. On the other hand, neither did the children whose parents were rated as 'good' participants make significant gains.

It would seem that complete failure of the parents to participate or to show interest in the preschool program has an inhibiting effect on the child's growth. Then, too, the non-participating center parent does not, for the most part, participate in any activity or function outside the home. This experiential deficit of the parent is reflected in the greatly depressed IQ scores of the child and in the lack of significant IQ gain after center experience.

Similarly, the child of the parent rated as a 'good' participant failed to make significant IQ gains after center experience. However, the parent who is very active in the center program is usually highly verbal and aggressive; she obviously does not become so after participation. In other words, the effect on the child has already occurred and is reflected in a significantly higher average pre-test IQ score for the children of these parents.

Again, when scores on the Metropolitan Readiness Test were analyzed it was apparent that the children of parents who did not participate at all in the center program scored significantly lower than children whose parents did participate, even if the degree of participation and interest was rated as 'poor'. However, except for the children of non-participants, no significant difference was found between mean MRT scores for the other children.

Table X

MEAN MRT SCORES BY DEGREE OF PARENT PARTICIPATION

<u>Parent Participation</u>	<u>Mean MRT Scores</u>
None	36.8
Poor	46.2
Fair	45.6
Good	48.7

In spite of the significantly lower post IQ and MRT scores for the children of non-participating parents this deficit was not reflected in correspondingly low scores on the sub-scales of the Metropolitan Achievement Test. No significant differences were found on mean sub-scale scores for any of the groups.

If, however, the child's promotion record is examined it is evident that the child of the non-participating parent does not do as well as the child of participating parents.

Table XI

DEGREE OF PARENT PARTICIPATION AND PROMOTION RATE

Degree of Parent Participation	PASS		FAIL	
	Number	%	Number	%
None	11	55.0	9	45.0
Poor	12	63.2	7	36.8
Fair	22	81.5	5	18.5
Good	<u>22</u>	71.0	<u>9</u>	24.0
<u>Total</u>	<u>67</u>	69.1	<u>30</u>	30.9

Contrary to expectations, the child whose parents were rated as 'fair' had the highest promotion rate; this rate was significantly higher than that ($p < .05$) of the child of non-participating parents. However, none of the other differences were statistically significant.

What seems to be significant practically, if not statistically, is that the over-all failure rate of these children with preschool experience remains so high.

Effects of Schedule and Days Attended

The original design for the center program varied classes by age groups and schedule within each center. Phase I children who entered first grade last fall had attended preschool on either a 2 or 4 day schedule.

Unfortunately, the assignment of children to a two or four day schedule was not done randomly. When an opening occurred one of the preschool staff members pulled out all the applications of children in the required age group. Selection was usually made by the teacher and teacher aide.

Analysis of the progress made by children attending on different schedules revealed that there were unforeseen factors involved in selection. There was, for example, a significant difference ($p < .01$) in pre IQ of children assigned to a two day or four day schedule, although the post-test scores were not significantly different. Then, too,

the average degree of parent participation was 3.1 for four day children and 2.6 for two day children.

It was felt that in many cases selection to the four day schedule was due to parental pressure. The child of the verbal, aggressive parent was more likely to be selected for the four day schedule. This lack of random assignment obscures any real evaluation of the effectiveness of differing schedule assignment.

Nevertheless, there seems to be some evidence that children who attended two days a week did as well or, in some cases, better than the children who attended four days a week. For example, sixteen children from each schedule were matched on pre IQ. The mean IQ score was 78.0, very close to the mean pre IQ score for all the children. The matched children who attended two days a week had a post IQ score of 91.9, the children attending a four day schedule had a post score of 88.9.

Table XII presents the comparative pre and post IQ scores by schedule.

Table XII

COMPARATIVE PRE-POST IQ SCORES BY SCHEDULE AND PRE IQ

<u>Pre IQ Score</u>	<u>2 DAY SCHEDULE</u>		<u>4 DAY SCHEDULE</u>	
	<u>Pre</u>	<u>Post</u>	<u>Pre</u>	<u>Post</u>
90 and over	101.4	98.8	105.2	99.1
75-89	80.8	93.8	79.7	90.0
Below 75	60.5	79.7	59.0	82.0
Total	74.1	87.2	87.6	92.7

It can be seen that the children scoring in the 75-89 range and attending on a two day schedule made the greatest gains. The children in the average and above IQ range lost on the post test, and the loss was greater for the children on a four day schedule. It appears that the child with a pre IQ score below 75 can profit most from a four day schedule. The table below shows the average number of days attended by pre IQ range and schedule.

Table XIII

AVERAGE NUMBER OF DAYS ATTENDED BY IQ AND SCHEDULE

<u>IQ Range</u>	<u>Schedule</u>	
	<u>2 Day</u>	<u>4 Day</u>
90 and above	98	146
75-89	90	183
Under 75	79	137
<u>Average</u>	86	152

The children on a four day schedule attended nearly twice as many days as those on a two day schedule. In spite of this the children attending four days a week did not make greater IQ gains than the children attending two days. Nor was there a difference in age at entry into the preschool program. The average age of entry for children on the four day schedule was 61 months, for children who attended a two day schedule the average age was 60 months.

Although the difference in post IQ scores for children on the two day and four day schedule was not significant, the children who attended four days a week scored significantly higher ($p < .01$) on the Metropolitan Readiness Test. Children on a four day schedule had an average total score of 51.2 compared to an average of 42.2 for children who were on a two day schedule.

Again, this superiority was reflected in the Metropolitan Achievement Test scores. Children who were on a four day schedule scored significantly higher ($p < .05$) on three of the sub-scales of the MAT, Word Knowledge, Word Discrimination and Reading. There was no significant difference in mean Arithmetic scores.

Table XIV

COMPARATIVE MEAN MAT SUB-SCORES AND DAYS ATTENDED

	<u>Word Knowledge</u>	<u>Word Discrimination</u>	<u>Reading</u>	<u>Arithmetic</u>
2 Day	21.0	21.1	17.6	36.0
4 Day	24.4*	23.9*	19.2*	44.2

* $p < .05$

As could be expected from the Metropolitan Readiness and Achievement Test scores, a larger proportion of the children on the four day schedule were promoted, 79.3 percent as compared with 65.7 percent. The difference in promotion rate, however, was not significant.

Age at Intervention

Most of the sample children who began first grade in September 1967 had entered the center program between the ages of 4½ and 5½ years. The mean age at intervention was 60.3 months. The average pre and post IQ scores for age at intervention are presented below:

Table XV

COMPARATIVE MEAN PRE-POST IQ SCORES AND AGE AT INTERVENTION

	48-53 MONTHS		54-59 MONTHS		60-65 MONTHS		OVER 66 MONTHS	
	Pre IQ	Post IQ	Pre IQ	Post IQ	Pre IQ	Post IQ	Pre IQ	Post IQ
2 Day	73.3	96.6	75.6	88.4	72.7	83.8	74.4	89.2
4 Day	74.0	85.0	87.1	92.6	83.2	90.7	99.9	98.1
Total	73.5	94.8	78.4	89.4	75.6	85.7	85.5	93.1
	N = 8		N = 37		N = 44		N = 16	

It appears that the child who begins preschool between the ages of 4 and 5 years and attends on a two day schedule makes the greatest gains, even allowing for 'gain expectations' based on pre IQ. It is evident, too that greater gains are made by the children who entered the program at a younger age. It was not possible to match number of days attended for two and four day schedules as originally anticipated because of the few children in each case that could be matched. Nevertheless, it appears that a two-day schedule beginning at an early age is just as effective in producing IQ gain as a four day schedule. While the children who entered early had the highest average post IQ of any 'age at entry' group they, nonetheless, did not do as well on the Metropolitan Readiness Test or the Metropolitan Achievement Test. The difference in scores was not significant and, of course, the number of cases is quite small.

Preschool Experience and IQ Loss

There were 105 children from the Preschool Program who entered public school in September 1967; all were Negro children from poverty neighborhoods. Thirty percent of them scored in the average (IQ score 90 or above) range on the pre-test given soon after entry into the center program. Of these, 58 percent scored lower on the post test, although over half of the children scored in the average range on the post test. A further breakdown of pre IQ scores and percent of children making gains is presented below:

Table XVI

PRE IQ SCORE AND PERCENT MAKING GAIN

<u>Pre IQ Range</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% Making Gains</u>	<u>Pre IQ Average</u>	<u>Post IQ Average</u>
Above average (110 above)	8	25	120.9	104.9
Average (90-109)	23	48	97.5	97.6
Below Average (75-89)	25	89	81.0	93.4
Below 75	<u>49</u>	92	60.5	80.2
<u>Total</u>	<u>105</u>	75	78.0	88.3

Numerous studies have reported that the child with a low initial IQ score can be expected to make greater gains from exposure to a preschool program than the child with an average or near average pre IQ score. This expectation was confirmed with the subjects of the study. However, while it was not expected that the child who scored relatively high on the pre-test would make equal gains, neither was it expected that fully half of these children would experience a loss.

There was a significant change ($p < .001$) between pre-post test scores for both below average groups. For the group that scored in the average range on the pre-test there was essentially no change. The above average group scored significantly lower on the post test.

Not only did the proportion of children making gains decrease with the increase in pre IQ score, but the average amount of gain or loss followed the same pattern.

Table XVII

PRE IQ SCORE AND AVERAGE GAIN/LOSS

<u>Pre IQ Range</u>	<u>Number Gain</u>	<u>Number Loss</u>	<u>Average Gain</u>	<u>Average Loss</u>
110 and above	2	6	7	22
90-109	11	12	11	10
75-89	22	3	15	11
Below 75	<u>44</u>	<u>5</u>	23	9
<u>Total</u>	<u>79</u>	<u>26</u>	16.4	12.7

It is realized that the regression phenomenon may play a part in the lower post IQ score among high scorers. Then, too, some of the losses, as some of the gains, were within the standard error of the PPVT. It was felt, however, that while these factors may have been involved, there were other factors that may also have had an effect on pre-post test scores.

Seventy-five percent of the X-1 children did make gains, 78.0 percent of the girls and 71.7 percent of the boys. An investigation of IQ loss by sex revealed an interesting and unexpected result. Girl losses were almost entirely confined to the four classes that had white teachers. Thirty-six percent of the girls in these classes scored lower on the post IQ test as compared to fourteen percent in classes with Negro head teachers.

Conversely, fifteen percent of the boys with white teachers scored lower on the post IQ test as compared to thirty-three percent in other classes. Whether or not these findings have any real relevance to race, or if they simply reflect a reaction to the individual teachers is not known. It may possibly reflect a certain degree of cultural preference. In the lower-class Negro family a boy is not usually as highly valued as a girl. In white families there tends to be a cultural preference for boys. If this preference was covertly or overtly expressed by the teachers

it might very well result in the differential gains observed. For those children who scored lower on the pre-test, the amount of loss followed the same pattern. The boys lost less if they had a white teacher and the girls lost less if they had a Negro teacher. Gains, however, did not follow the same pattern.

It was also evident that a loss in IQ was associated with a loss in personal adjustment as measured by the modified California Test of Personality. A post-test loss in social adjustment did not seem to be related to either gain or loss in IQ score. What factors in center experience, school experience, or in the home might have precipitated a loss in personal adjustment cannot, of course, be known.

It has also been suggested that preschool experience, which is primarily permissive and unstructured, might actually depress the performance of certain children. A child may exert a great deal of effort at first to please a teacher or from fear of a new situation. In a permissive atmosphere the child soon finds he is not reprimanded for failing to follow directions or for ignoring the teacher. He might, therefore, fail to exert himself in a later testing situation.

If this observed IQ loss is not simply "statistical", and it is unlikely that it can be completely explained in those terms, then what factor or combination of factors are involved and to what extent? It seems evident that not only the losses need investigation, but also the failure to make gains.

A preschool program cannot be expected to effect equal gains in all children, but it would seem that preschool attendance should not have an adverse effect on any child. It is recognized that other factors may result in a decline in some instances; however, the evidence would seem to indicate that the Preschool Readiness Center program was not fulfilling the needs of all the children.

For the most part the children who experienced a loss came from the same deprived homes, the same neighborhoods as the children who made gains. Seventy-eight percent of the total number of children were from "poverty" families. The others were from low-income families who earned little more than the Government Index of Poverty Standard. While

a larger portion of "above poverty level" children made IQ scores in the average range, they were no more likely to suffer a loss than were the high scorers among the child from an ADC or poverty level family. Even when the child within the average IQ range did not experience a loss, his gains were usually minimal.

Another unexpected fact was that the children who made the greatest gains attended fewer number of days on the average than children who sustained an IQ loss. It seemed that the preschool child was less likely to make gains, in fact tended to regress, when placed in a learning situation with children who were far below his level of learning. Then, too, for the child who had been in the center for some time the material was often repetitious.

It appears that depending on the individual child, maximum gains in the present program are made in a relatively short period of time. Some children coming into the center may already be above the level of the program offered. When new children are added it is necessary to cover some of the same material again so the child who has been in the center for months is not exposed to the new learning experiences he must have if he is to continue to make progress.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

An evaluation of an existing program presents many difficulties to the researcher. Unforeseen factors that cannot be controlled often tend to obscure or influence the outcome. However, if these factors are recognized they need not invalidate the findings but will tend to dilute them and, thus, limit the conclusions and generalizations that can legitimately be drawn.

Then, too, there is a need to make some distinction between statistical significance and practical significance. In some instances a finding may be statistically significant but not practically so in terms of the stated objective of the program. At other times the result may not be significant statistically and yet have some practical implications for future plans or effective program changes.

A look at some of the major hypotheses of this study in terms of their statistical and practical significance will point out some of the incongruities often found in statistical evaluations.

The hypotheses tested are presented in operational form.

Hypothesis 1: Disadvantaged children who participate in the preschool readiness program will be better prepared (as measured by the Metropolitan Readiness Test and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test) to compete with children from the same socio-economic level who have not had such experience.

This expectation was confirmed at the .001 level of confidence. Evidently, then, preschool experience (with trained sub-professional teachers) is able to prepare the deprived child for public school. Nevertheless, the PPVT scores were still depressed and the mean MRT score was in the low average range.

It was also expected that preschool experience would effect a significant change in pre-post IQ scores.

Hypothesis 2: Attendance at a preschool readiness center will effect a significant change between pre and post PPVT scores.

This hypothesis was also confirmed. Nevertheless, the mean post IQ for the experimental children was 88.3, still below the average range.

Hypothesis 3: Disadvantaged children who have had at least one year in the preschool readiness center will do as well on the Metropolitan Readiness Test as their more privileged school-mates who have had no preschool experience.

This hypothesis was also confirmed. In fact, the preschool children scored significantly higher on the PPVT (practice effect?) than the middle income children living in the same neighborhoods and attending the same schools. There was essentially no difference in the MRT scores.

The conclusion drawn, then, is that the preschool children did enter first grade at the same level as their middle-income schoolmates. Why were they unable to maintain this position? Children who had been in the eight-week Summer Head Start program also scored significantly lower on the PPVT and the MRT than the preschool children, but by the end of the school year they did as well as the experimental children on the Metropolitan Achievement Test, school grades and promotion rate. Both groups did better than the low-income control group children with no preschool experience, but not significantly so, and all groups were far behind their middle-class schoolmates.

It is easy and even popular to place the blame on the public schools, but it does not really explain why the preschool children were not able to maintain their level of performance. Children experiencing Summer Head Start, and even those with no preschool experience, were able to make at least moderate gains. Middle income children in the same schools made satisfactory gains. It is true that the school curriculum does not seem to be geared to the disadvantaged child, although 38 percent of the children in the school district are from poverty families. (See District #189 curriculum outline guide, Appendix C). Nineteen elementary schools out of a total of 32 are considered "poverty" schools with a range from 38 percent poverty children to a high of 76 percent. While first grade classrooms are overcrowded throughout the district, the poverty schools have a slightly lower teacher-pupil ratio. The first grade in the twelve sample schools is approximately 96 percent Negro and 99 percent of the teachers are Negro. Only four of the schools have any white children at all in the first grade. The textbooks used, although new, are not an urban-series, but the counterpart of "Dick and Jane." The nineteen 'poverty' schools also use a supplementary series of books. This means that the disadvantaged child, the child least able to do so, is required to complete two sets of books during a school year. Of course, the middle-income child attending a 'poverty' school must also complete the two series of books.

The differences between the middle-income and the low-income child in this study were pointed out earlier.

The parents of middle-income children were better educated and, by and large, educated in East St. Louis. Parents of low-income children were more often educated in the South and the family head was most often female. Thus, another influencing factor may be the parent's and child's need for achievement or lack of it. As McClelland² has reported, the need for achievement is a strong motivating factor for school success. Rosen³ reported that Negro lower-class children have scored the lowest of all groups tested on need for achievement. That this motivating factor may play a part in the higher achievement of the middle-income sample children in this study is indicated by the fact that in three out of four of the sub-scale MAT tests the middle-income children scoring in the average range (with a percentile rank from 23 through 76) had a lower mean IQ score than the low-income experimental and control groups scoring in the same range. This did not hold true for middle-income children scoring in superior or above average percentile range; nor for those in the below average range.

A striking result of most preschool programs is an increase in vocabulary and word knowledge. This knowledge often is not associated with meaning. In the present study children in all groups did relatively better on the Word Knowledge and Word Discrimination scales of the MAT, but did less well on the Reading (Comprehension) scale. Here, too, there was a striking difference between the middle-income child and the other low-income groups. Twenty-seven percent of the middle-income children scored below average on the Reading subscale; over 50 percent of the low-income children scored below average.

Another factor which may play a part in the poor performance of low-income children is teacher expectation. The teacher is well aware of the deprived child in her classroom (children of poverty and ADC families are en-

²McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, Van Nostrand, Princeton, N. J. 1961

³Rosen, Bernard C. "Race, Ethnicity, and the Achievement Syndrome," American Sociological Review, Vol. 24, 1959 pp. 47-60

titled to free books) and she often expects little from him. It was not uncommon to hear a teacher say that certain children were 'dumb' and couldn't learn. If a child tends to do what is expected of him, then many of these children will do poorly throughout their school years.

It would seem that the teacher, knowing a child had previous preschool experience would expect more of him, but in reality, the child was only expected to sit down, be quiet and follow directions. More than one teacher felt that the most important thing the preschool centers could do was to teach the children to be quiet and follow directions. Children who had experienced a year or more of a permissive, relatively unstructured preschool program might very well have had a difficult time adjusting to the public school routine. Next fall the East St. Louis schools will initiate a Follow-Through program for approximately 300 children; half of them from the Preschool (Head Start) program. It will be possible, then, to measure the effects of a follow-up curriculum designed for the disadvantaged child.

It is true that the public schools have, to a large extent, failed to meet the needs of the disadvantaged inner-city child, but it is also true that the preschool readiness centers have failed to meet the needs of its children. Preschool centers specifically designed for disadvantaged children can effectively prepare these children for school. Yet, most preschool programs do not have a well-designed and systematic approach.

Most Head Start and Preschool programs are simple variations of the traditional nursery school program despite the fact that this approach has been demonstrably ineffective with disadvantaged children. Dr. Merle Karnes, in a paper presented at the convention of the American Educational Research Association, has compared the effects of various preschool intervention programs. She concluded that the structured programs such as the Bereiter-Engelmann program and Karnes' program, although different in approach, were significantly more effective in producing IQ gain and school readiness than the Montessori or traditional nursery school. The children from Dr. Karnes' program, and those from Bereiter-Engelmann program, scored in the superior range on the Metropolitan Readiness Test. The traditional

nursery school group placed at the 52nd percentile. The preschool children of the present study had a mean raw score of 45 and placed at the 31st percentile; only 27, or approximately one-fourth of them, placed above the 50th percentile.

The Preschool Program, despite its stated objectives (Appendix D) is in effect little more than the traditional nursery school, and the children who are 5½ to 6 years are exposed to the same curriculum and the same permissive atmosphere as the three year old child.

In an attempt to make the center program responsive to the needs of all the children, the decision was made to transfer to a separate class those children who, in the teacher's estimation, had gone beyond what was normally covered in the center programs. Currently, each center has three classes with a total of 45 children. The teachers in each center have selected 15 children from the total enrollment to be combined into a single class. Depending on the particular needs of a center there may be three levels of classes. The children in the "advanced" class will be given a more structured program, and one that covers new material. It is hoped that in this way these children may continue to make progress.

There is no intention of making it a closed system. Most of the children who were selected for the advanced group are older and have been in the center for some time. Most of them will be going to school in the fall and will be replaced by new admissions. Any time an opening occurs it is possible to move a child from one group to another. This may be to the advanced group or to a slower group, if the teacher feels it is necessary.

It is recognized that the change will make the center programs similar to the "track" system used extensively in public schools, and which has recently been under severe attack. There is some evidence to indicate that the slow child does perform better in school when placed in a class with average or fast learners rather than with children of his own level.

There is less certainty about the effects of placing a very bright child in a class of slow learners, although it is generally felt that there would be no adverse effects. At any rate, there is no evidence to indicate that this holds true on the preschool level. It is, indeed, extremely unlikely that it does, since continued growth for the bright child in a class of slow or average ability must be predicated on his being able to work somewhat independently and, in effect, to teach himself. While this is possible to a greater or lesser degree for the elementary school child, particularly those in the upper grades, it is not generally possible for the preschool child.

Although these class changes were made last spring there has to date been no effective curriculum developed for the three groups. The new educational director for the preschool readiness center program has prepared a summary and evaluation of the present center curriculum (Appendix E) and will be working with the teachers to develop specific goals and objectives, and a more effective approach to teaching the disadvantaged preschool child.

There may indeed be an optimum age at entry and intensity of treatment, but these have been obscured under the present center program. With a new structure designed to provide the child with the maximum benefits that can be derived from access to learning, it may be possible to arrive at an optimum time for successful intervention.

Another hypothesis involved parent participation and child achievement.

Hypothesis 4: Children whose parents were actively involved (working in the centers, participating in parent meetings, etc.) in the parent program of the center will achieve higher scores on the Metropolitan Readiness Test than children whose parents were not involved.

This hypothesis was confirmed at the .05 level. The child of the non-participating parent scored significantly lower on the MRT, placing at the 19th percentile. However, the children of participating parents also made low average scores, placing at the 38th percentile.

Here again the initial superiority was not maintained. No significant difference was found between children of participating parents on the Metropolitan Achievement Test given at the end of the school year.

Nevertheless, all indications were that the child whose parents did not participate at all scores lowest on all test measures, even if not significantly so. In view of this poor performance it was felt that a program designed to reach the non-participating parent would have the greatest effect on the children who have the greatest need.

The Head Start Programs throughout the country have placed heavy emphasis on parent involvement under the theory that by involving the parents in the goals of the program the child, as well as the parent, will somehow derive certain benefits. How this comes about, or what these benefits are is not clear.

However, most programs have made significant efforts to involve parents as teacher aides in the centers, or as volunteer workers on field trips. Unfortunately, parent involvement has been largely measured and evaluated in terms of the number of volunteer hours accumulated.

In the Preschool Readiness Centers these volunteer hours may be spent in planning activities outside the center or cleaning up, washing dishes, taking children for a walk or simply sitting while the teacher presents an activity. With few exceptions little attempt is made by members of the preschool staff to allow meaningful parent-child interaction in the center, or to recognize the potential learning experience for both parent and child that such interaction might generate.

Parent meetings, too, have failed to attract more than a handful of parents. These meetings have been largely devoted to planning parties, field trips or money raising ventures. As such they are not responsive to the needs and concerns of the majority of parents. The depressed IQ scores of the children of non-participating parents and the relatively modest gains made by these children indicate a need for a greater effort at parent involvement.

It has been hypothesized that if the non-participating parent could be reached, these children who have the greatest need would also make the greatest gain. The degree of participation does not seem to be relevant to IQ gains; the children who made the greatest gains were those whose parents were rated as 'poor' participants. Thus, even minimal participation seems to have a beneficial effect on the child's progress.

Accordingly, plans are currently being made for an intensive parent involvement program at two of the centers. One center is located in a very unstable, depressed neighborhood. The other center is located in a similarly deprived area, but one that has a more stable residential pattern.

Initial plans were to have only one center involved in the pilot program. It was felt that the program would have a better chance of success in a center with low-child turnover, and one located in a relatively stable neighborhood. These and other considerations prompted the selection of the Wesley Bethel Center.

The second center now participating in the project, the First Methodist Center, had been rejected initially because it was felt that the high child turnover rate and the unstable, changing neighborhood would make effective parent involvement impossible to attain. The center social worker and the center staff, however, felt certain that it was possible to reach these non-participating parents by planning meetings and activities directed at their needs and interests. The initial success of the social worker and center staff prompted the inclusion of the center in the parent involvement project.

The two participating centers are served by different social workers and family workers. It was suggested that each social worker, along with the center staff, plan the program and the approach to be used in his center.

General plans have been drawn up for each center; but to date have been implemented in only one. The Wesley Bethel Center recently moved to another location with subsequent loss of some of the children. This move has delayed the implementation of the program at that center.

The program, however, is going on at the First Methodist Center. Since the initiation of the pilot project, attendance at parent meetings has increased from an average of 5 parents per meeting to 15; volunteer hours average 100 per month. The emphasis, as set forth by the center social worker is on constructive and structured parent meetings, useful parent projects, center activities and volunteer hours. A Parent Interest Chart was developed (Appendix F) to be used by the family worker and the social worker when making home visits. In this way it is possible to plan parent meetings that are geared to the parents' interests and concerns.

At a recent parent meeting, for example, a member of the East St. Louis Police Department talked to the parents about the relationship between the community and the police. He also presented two films of great interest to the group: "Female Self Defense" and "The Child Molester."

The staff has also initiated meetings with Head Start parent groups in St. Louis, Missouri to exchange mutual ideas and concerns. Because parents have expressed interest in their child's education, contacts have been made with the first grade teachers at the neighborhood school. Three teachers have agreed to act as consultants to the center staff in developing a curriculum more suited to preparing the child for first grade. Another project of the parent group in this center may prove to be an interesting money-making venture. Parents are collecting recipes for a "soul food" cook-book.

It is not known if the effects of the parent-involvement program will be measurable by the child's future performance, but it is evident that the parents who have been involved have profited. The group has become more sophisticated. For example, until this year money in the treasury was kept in a jar; now it is banked and careful records kept of deposits and withdrawals.

An important adjunct to the parent involvement program is the planned training for volunteers working in the preschool center. The objectives of the volunteer training was set up by the First Methodist Center staff.

1. To help the volunteer develop positive, constructive way of working with children.
2. To teach the volunteer how to supervise children in center activities and to be prepared to take charge of the center in the absence of the teacher.
3. To teach the volunteer how to prepare and plan, as well as present preschool materials and activities.
4. To develop volunteer's confidence in his ability to work with preschool children.

Training will also include the development of language, writing, reading and other necessary skills by means of lectures, role playing and practical application.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study involved the follow-up of 105 first graders who had experienced the Preschool Readiness Program (X-1); 93 children who had participated in the Summer Head Start Program and were attending center area schools (X-2); 79 low income children with no preschool experience (C-1, 2) and 59 middle income children attending these same schools (C-3).

The preschool children were tested upon entry into the center program by means of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, the Preschool Inventory and a modified version of the California Test of Personality. All experimental and control groups were tested upon entry into first grade by means of the tests mentioned above, as well as the Metropolitan Readiness Test.

The table below presents comparative mean test scores for the experimental and control groups. The t test was used as the test of significance.

Table XVIII

COMPARATIVE MEAN SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	<u>PPVT</u>	<u>PI</u>	<u>CTP</u>		<u>MRT</u>
			<u>Personal</u>	<u>Social</u>	
X-1	88.7	66.0	22.0	24.8	45.0
X-2	74.4**	60.1**	21.0	23.7	37.3**
C-1, 2	72.6**	57.6**	20.7	23.6	35.3**
C-3	77.4**	61.5*	21.7	24.0	44.4

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

The preschool children (X-1) scored significantly higher on the PPVT than children from the other experimental and control groups, but in all cases the scores were depressed. There was also a significant difference found in the mean scores on the Preschool Inventory although the difference between X-1 and C-3, middle income children, was not as great.

Essentially no difference was found between the groups in personal or social adjustment as measured by the California Test of Personality.

A comparison of mean Metropolitan Readiness Test scores for each of the experimental and control groups revealed that X-1 children scored significantly higher on the test than the low-income control groups and X-2 children (those who were in the Summer Head Start Program.) They also scored somewhat higher than the C-3, middle income children attending the same schools. The difference, however, was not significant.

On the Metropolitan Achievement Test the middle income children scored significantly higher than the other experimental and control groups. The preschool children began the school year with significantly higher MRT scores than the other low-income groups, but the scores on the MAT, given at the end of the school year, were not significantly different.

Although the children with preschool experience started public school at the same readiness level as their middle-income classmates, and at a higher level than the other sample children, they were not able to maintain this level of performance.

Children with preschool readiness experience scored significantly higher on the PPVT, PI and Metropolitan Readiness Test than children experiencing Summer Head Start only.

Children with preschool readiness experience scored significantly higher on the PPVT, PI and the Metropolitan Readiness Test than children from low-income families who had no previous preschool experience.

There was no significant difference in mean Metropolitan Readiness Test scores between preschool readiness children and middle income inner-city children.

No differences were found between the groups on personal or social adjustment as measured by the California Test of Personality.

Middle income children scored significantly higher than the preschool children on the Metropolitan Achievement Test.

By the end of the year there was no significant difference between any of the low-income experimental and control groups.

Middle-income children had a significantly higher promotion rate than the low income sample children

No correlation was found between the total number of days child attended the center and IQ gain.

There was no correlation between age at entry and IQ gain.

Children whose parents did not participate at all in the center program did not make significant IQ gains.

There was a significant gain between pre-post tests for preschool children on the PPVT, the PI and the CTP.

Pre-post IQ loss for the preschool children was associated with loss of personal adjustment as measured by the California Test of Personality. A loss in social adjustment was not associated with either gain or loss in IQ score.

As noted previously, while the children experiencing the preschool program made statistically significant gains, their subsequent school performance was far below expectations. By the end of the school year the children from the Summer Head Start Program performed as well, and in some cases better than the children who had a year of preschool experience. Thus, the entire blame for failure cannot be placed on the public schools.

This is not to say that no benefits have accrued to the child from center attendance other than the obvious benefits of the medical and dental program. The child did increase his word knowledge and verbal ability, as well as gain some degree of confidence in a learning situation. However, these gains were not sufficient for successful school achievement. Perhaps there will be some latent effects after the difficult adjustment to public school routine is made. While all components of the preschool program are important it would seem that the major emphasis in a preschool program should be the child.

Perhaps the proposed center changes, if carried through, will have some beneficial effects for the child. However, without a specific philosophy for a guideline, without stated educational goals to be attained, without effective in-service training for the sub-professional teachers, and without strong leadership and enthusiasm from all staff members, the program will continue to fail the children it was designed to serve.

APPENDIX A

THE PRESCHOOL READINESS CENTER PROGRAM

The Preschool program in East St. Louis, Illinois has been in operation since 1965. It is funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity and operated by the Delinquency Study and Youth Development Project of Southern Illinois University. Five of the six centers are operating in local churches, one is located in a public housing project.

All the centers have three separate classes, each class serving 15 children. A child, depending on the class he is assigned to, may attend four half days, two half days, or three half days per week. Each center has a teacher and a teacher's aide; both of whom are trained sub-professionals. In addition, the assigned family worker works in the center two days a week. The remainder of the time the family workers make home visits, plan parent meetings and write reports. These family workers are also trained sub-professionals. Both teachers and aides are encouraged to enroll at Southern Illinois University, and many of them have or are regularly taking courses.

The Program's central office staff consists of a Coordinator, an educational director, two social workers, a nurse and a nurses aide. The Program maintains a Preschool Advisory Board comprised of two parents from each center and eight professionals from the community. The Advisory Board's purpose is to advise the director in the formulation of general policy for all the centers and to aid in coordinating center activities.

In practice the board meetings are little more than a means of keeping parents informed, and of getting their views on program changes. Despite early interest and participation by the eight professional members of the Preschool Advisory Board, their continued inclusion as members has more recently been in name only.

In addition to the Advisory Board members, each center has a parent group which meets once a month to plan social activities and field trips for the children of that center. It is also the responsibility of the parents to devise means of raising money to support these activities. The participating parents also try to encourage other parents to become involved in volunteer work in the center.

The Preschool Readiness Program includes medical and dental care for all center children. A physical examination is a requisite for the child's continued center participation.

Because the centers have no facilities for cooking food the lunch program initially consisted of a hot-sandwich box lunch catered by a local firm. During the past year a new lunch program has been initiated. Monotony of the sandwich diet, difficulty in effective teaching about foods and nutrition, and a lack of opportunities to involve the children in the lunch program prompted the change. Meals are now served family style. The children may participate by serving food and setting tables. For variety, and to enable the teaching staff to do meaningful teaching about food, a four-cycle seasonal menu has been instituted. Both morning and afternoon classes are served a hot lunch, as well as a snack during the three hour class session. Thus, an inordinate amount of time - fully one-third of the child's day - is spent in food preparation, serving and doing dishes. Unless the teacher is able to introduce meaningful learning experiences during these periods, the child's actual exposure to learning activities is very limited.

In the central office ongoing staff training is carried out by the educational director and the social workers. Weekly one-half day sessions, and a monthly all-day session are conducted. In addition, outside resource persons are sometimes utilized in this training, or visits may be made to other agencies or preschool programs.

Relationships with other related federal anti-poverty agencies in the community are maintained. The Neighborhood Opportunity Centers assisted in recruiting and enrolling eligible children in the preschool program. Members of the preschool staff recently served in a consultant capacity to the local Economic Opportunity Commission in the development of a Summer Head Start Program. During the past year the parents of the Preschool Advisory Board were asked to serve as a temporary Advisory Board of Project Follow-Through. These parents, as well as members of the Preschool Readiness staff, have taken part in early phases of the development of this program. The centers have also served as an agency visited by New Careers enrollees as part of their training, and Vista Workers and Foster Grandparents have been assigned to the centers at various times.

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF PRESCHOOL READINESS CHILDREN

While East St. Louis is one of the most depressed and poverty stricken urban areas in the country, the majority of children in the Preschool Readiness Center program did not appear to be severely deprived; nor did they appear to lack many of the experiences generally believed necessary for cognitive development. Almost all were in good health and without physical handicaps. Admittedly, there were selective factors involved. A child who was handicapped or chronically ill was unlikely to be registered by the parent, and if registered was unlikely to be chosen for enrollment. Then, too, registration and enrollment in itself is indicative of some degree of parental interest and initiative.

An analysis of the results of the medical component of the preschool program revealed that 95 percent of the 105 children who entered first grade in the fall of 1967 had received a physical examination while in the center program. Ninety-eight percent were rated as being in good health, although 23 percent needed some follow-up care. Only two percent were rated in fair health by the examining doctor.

The dental program did not get underway until later, so that fewer children received dental examinations. However, thirty-six children were examined by cooperating dentists. Ninety-one percent of the children examined had good teeth, although forty-nine percent needed some follow-up work. Nine percent were rated as fair.

Seventy-two percent of the children had completed the required immunization and 25 percent had received either a chest X-ray or a tuberculin test. Seventy-five percent had a cursory vision check while in the center program.

Analysis of some of the enrollment data supplied by the parent would seem to indicate that the center child was not deprived of certain kinds of experiences more often associated with the middle-class child. All the children had radios and T.V.'s at home; twenty-one percent had record players.

Eighty-six percent of the mothers reported that their child had books at home and 88 percent stated that they read to the child occasionally. More than half of the children had taken trips out of the immediate two-state area; most of these trips were to the South. Forty-four percent had been to a farm, and 73 percent had visited a zoo.

While only 17 percent of the parents reported incomes over \$5,000, many of these were in the poverty range because of large families. The average number of children per family was five.

Later home visits by the social worker tended to confirm the belief that parents anxious to enroll their child might have been tempted to give what they felt were expected responses. It was certain that in some cases income was intentionally understated when it became known that the centers would select only a small number of non-poverty children. Because reported income was so easily distorted, children were actively recruited from area families receiving aid to dependent children, and slightly over one-half of the experimental children were from such families.

APPENDIX C

EAST ST. LOUIS SCHOOL DISTRICT #189 FIRST GRADE CURRICULUM GUIDE

A curriculum usually contains a statement of aims and of specific objectives; it indicates some selection and organization of content; it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching, whether because the objectives demand them or because the content organization requires them. Finally, it should include a program of evaluation of the outcome.

A good curriculum and good teaching at all levels of schooling are basically the same when defined in terms of broad principles. Application of these principles at varying levels must differ, however, in terms of the growth characteristics, needs and interests of children. More specifically, differentiation must be made in content, learning activities, methods and ways of working with children.

This curriculum guide for first grade is an effort toward defining good teaching at this primary level.

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT #189

Education in a democracy is the direct growth of each individual to the utmost of his intellectual, emotional, ethical, social and physical potentialities. In a democracy, equal and adequate opportunities must be available to all. Democracy is not inherited, but must be learned anew by each generation.

To a great degree the welfare of the child is dependent on the interest and concern of the parents and their understanding and appreciation of the school's operations and policies. It is the responsibility of the school staff to make efforts to achieve a good relationship with parents so that all might work together in motivating and encouraging the pupils.

School District #189 must provide learning experiences through a constant, sequential program under trained, qualified, sympathetic, and respected teachers in a good school environment in which each child will have the opportunity to reach his maximum potential and feel happy, confident and secure.

We believe that the community itself depends upon the products of its school system. The moral strength of our city government, civic and political leaders, is being formed or molded right now in our public schools. The influence of our system in many individual cases is comparable to that of the home or church because so many of the child's formative years are spent in the classroom. Since our system trains for future citizenship, we must stress all the branches of academic learning and also be aware of the student's other needs, such as appreciation of beauty, personality development, awareness of moral values, and each individual's obligation to society.

We believe that the school system exists for the students. This means that we must strive to provide for all levels of mental ability. We must challenge the gifted child with sufficient subject content and opportunity to pursue and accomplish those projects which satisfy his individual fields of curiosity. We must stimulate the under-achiever to reach his full capacity for learning. We are obligated (without penalizing the students who are capable of progressing at a more rapid rate) to provide for the individual who requires special education either in the academic field or in vocational training.

These elements contribute directly to the success of this philosophy: qualified teachers who love children, ample physical facilities, and a good administration.

THE ROLE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The elementary school is the foundation for all formal education. The responsibility of the elementary school is particularly great in that it is here that the child is given the information, the skills, the motivation that lead to success or failure in formal education.

The role of the elementary school in School District #189 is:

1. to develop the intellectual power of the pupil based on the acquisition of the basic tools of learning and upon the acquisition of effective work habits at his maximum of reasoning power and creative ability.

2. to encourage an appreciation of art, music, and literature; to develop physical fitness through proper health habits and through a sound physical education program.
3. to teach and develop in each child respect for human dignity and concern for the rights and well-being of all people.
4. to create a classroom atmosphere filled with friendliness and understanding that will encourage every child whether slow, average or accelerated, to develop all of his abilities by helping him to accept himself as he is at the time, and by encouraging him to strive for the best that is in him.

STUDY GUIDES FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The following pages contain certain guides for the use of textbooks and manuals. They indicate an efficient use of the textbook and the manual, pointing out for the convenience of the teacher the parts of the manual that refer to specific lessons.

By simplification in outline form, an attempt has been made to make both the text and the accompanying manual or teacher's edition of greater service. This listing is not intended to replace the teacher's edition, but to implement its use.

The guides also present outlines of the work to be covered in some subjects. Much of this material has come from committees of teachers and has been issued in bulletins during the past years.

This guide should serve as a basis for further study by teachers' committees so that their suggestions may contribute to its best possible use. Subjects not included will be added as the work of such committees progresses.

SUGGESTED CLASS SCHEDULE

The schedule is a plan for carrying on the daily activities which enables the teacher to maintain a well-rounded and balanced development of the program. The time allotments should be in large blocks, with a balance between quiet and active periods. While the schedule should be

flexible, there should be sufficient routine that young children will feel secure in orderly procedure and will anticipate the day's activities. A schedule should be posted in the room to inform visitors of the program and, also for the use of a substitute teacher. It should be written in ink on the regular form, in neat, legible manuscript writing.

THE PRIMARY READING PROGRAM

The text for the primary reading program is:

Reading for Meaning - Fourth Edition

1966

Houghton-Mifflin Company

Purpose:

A successful primary reading program must have two essential aims: (1) to help pupils build the power to read well independently, and (2) to help them build a strong and continuing interest in reading a wide variety of worthwhile material.

The first several pages of the Introduction to the Teacher's Guide gives a plan for accomplishing these aims.

Organization:

Throughout the primary program, beginning with the teacher's guide, for the first preprimer there is a suggested instructional program that is consistent throughout the series.

The stories in each teacher's guide are divided into teaching units. The typical teaching unit contains four numbered sections as follows:

1. Preparing for Reading
2. Reading and Discussing
3. Developing Reading Skills
4. Providing for Individual Differences

The first three sections in each unit are considered basic for all groups.

Note: Section four is never intended to be taught in its entirety. It is to be used advisedly and selectively in order to reach individual needs and abilities.

TESTING

For each book in the series there is a Basic Reading Test. There is a single booklet covering the three preprimers, with a separate test for each preprimer. Beginning with the primer, Jack and Janet, there is a single test booklet for each book in the primary program, with each booklet divided into three batteries corresponding to the "magazine sections of the readers.

SPECIAL MATERIALS

Workbooks:

The workbook material reinforces skills taught. Each page is intended for use at a particular time and is indicated under the heading "Workbook Assignment" in the teacher's guide. This occurs at the end of section 2.

Word Introduction Books:

The Word Introduction Book is a time-saving help. It is a chart containing special sentences used to introduce the basal words.

How to Use This Guide:

The Author's Note in each section makes the connection between the instructional material in the unit and the philosophy that lies behind it. The teacher is urged to read each Authors' Note as she comes to it.

Before the teacher begins using the text of the grade with her pupils, it is essential that the suggestions in red italics be followed.

SUGGESTED PACING

Every room is an individual one with differing degrees of ability. In consideration of these differences, it is impossible for the reading program to progress uniformly throughout the school district. Nevertheless, it is desirable to suggest a division of materials to be taught within a certain time. This is especially true in District #189 where there is constant mobility of pupils.

The following schedule is suggested for a class of "average" ability.

READING - GRADE ONE

A. Before we Read

A committee of first grade teachers and supervisors, in meetings held during January 1959 carefully examined each lesson in Before We Read. It was agreed that some pages do not seem to contribute to reading readiness; others seem difficult; others are repetitious.

The committee has suggested the following changes concerning the use of the book:

1. Eliminate the following 28 pages of Before We Read

6	22	33	44
14	23	35	45
16	24	38	46
17	25	40	49
18	28	41	51
20	29	42	54
21	32	43	55

2. Spend not more than two weeks on Before We Read.
The average pupil will acquire the necessary readiness for reading within these two weeks.
3. Eliminate the publisher's test on Before We Read.
4. Present the Big Book to the entire class at the beginning of the third week as an introduction to We Look and See.

B. Getting Ready to Read

This book provides necessary practice in six pre-reading skills:

1. Using spoken context to identify an omitted word. (See Lesson 1)
2. Recognizing the various letter forms by name in both capital and small-letter form, and discriminating between them. (See Lesson 4)
3. Recognizing beginning sounds in words and discriminating between them. (See Lesson 10)
4. Associating consonant letters with the sounds they represent. (See Lesson 14)
5. Using spoken context, together with a printed beginning consonant, to identify an omitted word. (See Lesson 24)
6. Using spoken context and the first letter of a printed word to unlock that word. (See Lesson 26)

The sequence of skills 2 through 6 is repeated in presenting groups of the eighteen single consonants and the four speech consonants.

In each lesson in Getting Ready to Read there are three main parts -

Section 1 - Preparing for the Lesson

In this part the teacher carries out, without the book, informal exercises which will prepare the pupil for exercises to be done in the book. The teacher does her teaching in this section. It is the most important part of the readiness progress.

Section 2 - Developing the Lesson

Pupils use the pictures, letters or words in their books to show their ability to carry out the activities involved.

Section 3 - Providing for Individual Differences

The teacher helps pupils who have shown by their responses in Section 2 that they need further teaching or practice.

Getting Ready to Read helps pupils reach the stage of development at which they are ready to apply to reading the use of context and the beginning consonant sound of a word.

C. Reading for Meaning Series

Pre-Reading Program

The Big Book, Part I (Used simultaneously with
The Big Book, Part II Getting Ready to Read)

Getting Ready to Read

Approximate time, seven weeks.

Preprimers

Tip, Tip and Mitten, The Big Show

Approximate time, nine weeks.

Primer

Jack and Janet

Approximate time, eleven weeks.

First Reader

Up and Away

There are approximately eight weeks remaining in the school year for teaching Up and Away .

Because of varying abilities of individual classes, this may or may not be sufficient time to complete the book. It is suggested that at least the first 8 units be taught in grade one.

D. Think and Do Book

The stories, the skills lessons to be taught with each story, and the pages in the Think and Do Book which reinforces these skills have been listed in vertical columns for the convenience of the teacher. The list of skills may serve as a self-evaluation list for the teacher in determining whether or not she is teaching all the necessary word attack and comprehension skills needed at her grade level. It may also be used by the teacher as a check list of pupil progress. This listing is not intended to replace the Teacher's Guidebook. The guidebook has invaluable aids to the teacher in presenting all the necessary lesson steps and should be used simultaneously with the outline. Pages in the guidebook are listed following each skills lesson.

FIRST GRADE READING MATERIALS

TEXTBOOKS ALL CLASSROOMS

1. Getting Ready to Read -
Houghton-Mifflin Co.
2. Preprimers
 - a. Tip
 - b. Tip and Mitten
 - c. The Big Show
3. Jack and Janet
4. Up and Away

WORKBOOKS ALL CLASSROOMS

1. Tip
Tip and Mitten
The Big Show
2. Jack and Janet
3. Up and Away

POVERTY SCHOOLS

1. Pictures to Read -
Lyon-Carahan Co.
2. Preprimers
 - a. See Us Come
 - b. See Us Play
 - c. See Us Ride
3. Surprises for Us
Lyon-Carahan Co.
4. Good Times for Us
Lyon-Carahan Co.

5. Learning Letter Sounds,
Houghton-Mifflin Co.
6. Games to Play - Ginn & Co.
Ginn's Language Kit -
Ginn & Co.
7. Classroom Programs and
Tachist-O-Flasher
8. The Controlled Reader, EDL
 - a. Readiness
 - b. Preprimer
 - c. First grade

BASIC SIGHT WORDS AS PRESENTED IN THE FOURTH EDITION
OF THE READING FOR MEANING SERIES BY
HOUGHTON-MIFFLIN CO.

TIP

no	here	come	is	not	with	me
find	go	the	will	you	I	and

TIP AND MITTEN

good	be	to	a	are	have	it
its	this	for	get	we	may	in
where	has	call	sleep	give	your	

THE BIG SHOW

little	can	that	my	down	her	big
do	see	too	show			

JACK AND JANET

about	after	all	am	around	as	ask
at	away	going	black	but	by	yes
came	cold	could	did	does	eat	fast
fly	from	funny	gave	got	had	he
help	him	his	hold	how	into	jump
know	let	like	look	make	new	now
of	on	one	out	pull	put	ran
red	run	said	saw	she	so	soon
take	thank	them	then	there	these	they
those	two	up	upon	us	very	want
was	went	what	who	yellow		

UP AND AWAY

again	an	any	because	before	better	blue
brown	clean	today	done	don't	every	far
first	five	four	green	hot	if	just
laugh	light	long	made	many	much	must
never	off	open	or	our	over	own
ride	say	seven	some	stop	tell	think
three	use	walk	were	when	which	white

PHONOVISUAL METHOD

The main purpose of teaching phonics is to develop independence in word attack. This year (September 1962) a daily period for direct instruction in phonics is provided in first grade. The instruction will follow the Phonovisual Method.

A separate period is required to be sure that this important aid to reading will not be lost, crowded out or overlooked in connection with instruction in other phases of reading. The teaching of phonics is thus not left to chance.

A thirty-minute daily period used during the reading program will be given to the Phonovisual Method.

It is important that the Phonovisual Consonant Chart be introduced at the very beginning of the semester. Experience in other school systems has shown that it is best to begin the Consonant Chart the second or third day of school, that is, as soon as the usual preliminaries of the opening of school are completed.

The Phonovisual Method is based on the use of pictorial charts arranged on a scientific phonetic foundation, with a definite plan for training in auditory and visual discrimination.

There are 26 sounds on the Consonant Chart and 17 sounds on the Vowel Chart. The arrangement of the sounds on the charts is meaningful and very important.

THE CONSONANT CHART

The Consonant Chart, which is taught first because most words begin with consonants and because it is the consonants that make speech intelligible, classifies the sounds both vertically and horizontally. Vertically, the first column presents the whispered, or breath, consonants, beginning with the one placed farthest forward (the sound "p", which is merely a puff of breath blowing open the closed lips) and following the lip sounds with the lips-teeth, tongue-teeth, and tongue-palate sounds farther and farther back in the mouth.

Horizontally, the second column gives the voiced equivalents of the sounds in the first column. The third column shows the three nasal sounds, which are identical in position (though not in production) with their opposite numbers in the first two columns. The sounds in the fourth column are not identical in formation with their horizontal predecessors, but do bear some points of resemblance. All English consonant sounds are presented except the one we spell with "z" in azure, "s" in measure, and "g" in mirage. It is omitted because the pupils will not find it spelled "zh."

On the Phonovisual Vowel Chart also, the sounds are arranged in an orderly and meaningful way. Horizontally, the first row gives the sounds we know as "long" vowels, indicating the pronunciation by the spelling - a dash for the missing consonant sound, followed by the silent "e" which "makes the vowel say its name" as we know it in the alphabet. The second row shows the so-called "short" vowels - with a dash on each side to indicate that the sound usually occurs between two consonants. The rest of the chart gives spellings which indicate other vowel sounds spelled with the letter at the top of the vertical column.

All English-speaking people are far less consistent in their pronunciation of vowels than of consonants. In fact, regional modifications of certain vowel sounds sometimes make our speech all but unintelligible to people from other sections. The Phonovisual Vowel Chart makes no effort to indicate all possible variations, but merely presents those sounds most needed for reading and spelling English words. On both charts different ways of spelling the same sound are indicated in smaller type under the sounds where more than one spelling is frequent.

Three senses, auditory, visual, and kinesthetic, are trained and sharpened by the repetition and close attention required for deriving full value from the chart work. Observation and critical listening result in unusual accuracy in spelling. Alertness and quick perception are often stimulated to a striking extent in teachers as well as pupils, and a marked improvement in speech is often noted. The pleasure and confidence of the pupil lead to fluency and joy in reading*.

*Hansen, Charles F., The Amidon Elementary School, Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1962
pp. 123-124

GAMES FROM THE PHONOVISUAL GAME BOOK

Games should be used as a part of each period of instruction and should be appropriate to the step being taught. Care should be taken that each child has opportunity to participate in at least one game at each class period.

1. Naming the Pictures	2, 3
2. Making a "Mistake"	1
3. Watching the Teacher's Lips	
4. Introducing the Sounds	4, 5
5. Catching a Mistake in the Sounds	4
6. Saying the Sounds	5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27 28, 29
7. Writing the Sounds	32, 33
8. New Words	7, 8, 14, 16, 30, 32, 33
9. Introduction to Spelling: Initial and Final Sounds	31, 32, 34, 35 and Pages 24 and 25 of game book

POINTS TO BE REMEMBERED

1. Keep the fun in Phonovisual. Use games regularly. Repetition with pleasure and attention facilitate recall.
2. Correct a child's error gently and quickly. If he cannot recall a sound, tell him at once.
3. Use games as teaching situations, not as testing devices.
4. Make progression from left to right a habit. When a child reads from the chart or from the chalkboard, have him stand at the left side of the chart or written work, using the side of his left hand to place beneath the sounds as he reads them. The teacher should be careful to have her hand move in a left to right direction when indicating material to be read.
5. Each lesson should begin with Step I and continue through all steps assigned. Touch lightly and briefly the steps mastered, using most of the class period on new steps.

6. New sounds should be added one at a time.
7. Have each child write the chart sounds. The kinesthetic values are important even if quality of writing is not up to standard.
8. Step 8 should follow a definite pattern.
 - A. Say the word.
 - B. Have a child show on chart how word begins.
 - C. Have children write the sound.
 - D. Have them read it back.
9. At first follow the order of the chart when choosing words from pages 22-24, for dictation. Later, skip around when children no longer need to refer to the chart. Words from readers may also be used. See page 24 of Game Book.
10. Use games 7, 8, 14, 16, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35 for ear training, which is an extremely important part of the program.
11. From this point on children should have written dictation at the board daily.
 - A. Chart sounds for those who have not yet mastered them, and
 - B. Initial sounds of new words for those who can write the chart sounds.
 - C. Pupils at seats may use skill builders while others are at the board.

IT IS IMPERATIVE THAT EACH TEACHER FOLLOW THE DIRECTIONS IN THE METHOD AND GAME BOOKS WITHOUT DEVIATION IN ORDER TO ASSURE THE SUCCESS OF THE PHONOVISUAL METHOD.

LITERARY READERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The basic readers, the Scott Foresman Series, are primarily intended to develop reading skills. They do not pretend to present our literary heritage. This basic reading program is necessary and has not been changed. The emphasis is still on three-level grouping and remedial work where necessary, as the East St. Louis plan provides. The time allotment for basic reading is not to be disturbed except for one day, which is explained elsewhere.

Something more is needed to guide children into the values and wonders of literature, and to develop a love for reading. To satisfy this need the Treasury of Literature, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., has been added.

Merry-Go-Round	Grade I
Happiness Hill	Grade II
Treat Shop	Grade III
Magic Carpet	Grade IV
Enchanted Isles	Grade V
Adventure Lands	Grade VI

It is the teacher who must guide the children into the values and wonders of literature. Consequently, the literature books here recommended are not for independent reading, but for the class as a whole, with every child sharing and enjoying under teacher guidance. The books are not to be taken home. They are not to be kept in pupils' desks and are to be used only during the literature period with the teacher. Although some pupils will not be able to read the text, all are capable of hearing, enjoying, discussing and interpreting the story or poem through the illustrations. Grouping is to be disregarded when using the Merril books.

Unlike instruction in basic reading, the literature period is not concerned with the development of word attack or study skills, book reports or tests. The literature period must always be a happy interlude in the school day.

As an inspiration to the teacher, it is essential to study Part I, beginning on page 1, of the Teacher's Guide in the back of the book.

Part II gives general directions for the teaching of literature and detailed directions for developing each story and poem. The importance of these aids cannot be overemphasized.

The "Teaching Plan," page 10, gives suggestions under three general headings:

- a. Readiness for Enjoying the Story
- b. Creative Reading
- c. Creative Expression

The lesson plans following are simple, direct and brief.

Every child needs good literature for enjoyment, for exploration and enrichment of life, and must become acquainted with it under favorable circumstances. He needs good literature for entertainment, to refresh his spirit, to explore life and living, as a guidance resource, as an approach to spiritual values and ideals, and for patterns of beautiful language.

Two periods each week are to be given to literature to be scheduled as follows:

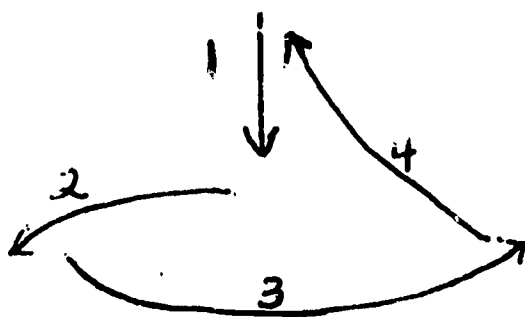
1. Friday, one of the 60 minute reading periods.
2. Wednesday, one language period of 20 minutes.

DIRECTIONS FOR TEACHING CHORAL READING

Choral Reading means the interpretation of poems by reading them in unison. The aim is to give students some enjoyable experiences with poetry; it is not to achieve a finished product to be given for an audience. It may happen that students will have so much fun with a selection that they will want to do it for an outside audience, but the important aim should be to awaken a liking for poetry. The aim is not primarily to achieve perfection but rather to bring pleasure.

1. Read the poem to the class. This reading should reflect all of the teacher's interpretive skill and imagination. (Never expound on the meaning by tearing the verse apart as it is read.)
2. Examine the poem with the class; know what the author is saying; prepare to discuss the meaning.
 - a. Decide how the author wants you to feel about the mood - gloomy, gay, mysterious, serious or light.
 - b. Find the climax if the selection tells a story.
 - c. Clarify the imagery; figurative language.
 - d. Note good picture word.
 - e. Enunciate clearly; use dictionary to check pronunciation.
 - f. Feel what you read. Let voice and body show that feeling.
 - g. Establish the tempo and rhythm of the poem. Does it gallop, trot or walk?

- h. Have intelligently planned discussion, suggestion and questioning. Children get more pleasure and satisfaction from choral speaking when they can work with their teacher rather than just for her.
 - i. Divide the class into groups to obtain certain effects in some selections. Suggested groupings in lower grades are girls, boys.
3. Do not be afraid of leading. Practice at home before a mirror until you can feel what you want to do. Softness, loudness, increased speed, and so on, are indicated as in music. A conductor's regulation beat is used as for $\frac{4}{4}$ time, down, in, out, up.



- 4. See that everyone's eyes are on you; then as you beat time, say softly, "1-2-3-speak" (if it begins on the first beat.) The most important signal, as in music, is the one for beginning.
- 5. Encourage students in upper grades, especially those with musical interests, to take over as leaders.
- 6. Keep bodies and voices relaxed; speak naturally.

GUIDE FOR TEACHING LANGUAGE

The purpose of the language course of study is the instruction and training of pupils to use English more effectively, to speak and write clearly and logically.

To this end we have collected the elements of the book that bear directly on speech and writing. Grammar is a guide and a vehicle for expression and should always be related to functional speaking and writing. Mere memorization or verbal knowledge of the principles of language alone does not guarantee their effectiveness. Drill is necessary, used with discretion, but the end result - improved writing and speaking - must always be the goal.

Language activities for young children are an integral part of the whole program of the school. They deal with the things children are interested in doing and talking about. The more closely the language experiences are tied to the day-by-day experiences of classroom living, the more vital and valuable they will be.

Lists of activities for grade one are included, as well as standards for each grade. Good teachers will wish to supplement these lists with ideas of their own. The stories, poems and dramatizations listed in the Guide Book for Scott-Foresman Readers are valuable for enriching the language experiences of first grade children.

PRIMARY LANGUAGE

Language training must be twofold. It is essentially an in-taking and out-going process. The child must have experiences, either real or vicarious, before he has anything to express. Cultural backgrounds are often meager. It is the privilege and the responsibility of the school to enrich and supplement whatever background the child has.

In-Taking:

Stories, poems, pictures, film strips, songs, conversations, discussions, and observations in abundance should be used to enrich the child's perceptions. Talking about the weather, trees, leaves, colors, sounds, tastes, etc., help stimulate the child's thinking and vitalize his mental imagery. Let the in-taking be generous, varied, continuous, and running over.

Out-Going:

Give the child ample opportunity to talk to the group, to small groups, and to you. Encourage expression by appreciation of even the most feeble efforts. Use dramatization and role-playing to help overcome shyness. Let the shy child play an aggressive role. Be very tactful in making corrections in errors of usage. Never permit children to make fun of a child's efforts at expression. Find something good to enlarge upon in each child's contribution. Make language period a happy period of listening, learning, enjoying and sharing.

SPEECH

Activities:

1. Enjoying stories and poems read by the teacher.
2. Learning and reciting short poems, rhymes and jingles.
3. Retelling simple stories, keeping events in proper sequence (for example, telling stories from a film strip or a series of pictures.)
4. Dramatizing stories and poems.
5. Sharing personal experiences with the class.
6. Dictating to the teacher simple experience stories of two or more sentences.
7. Play acting (social situations in which correct responses are used.)
8. Taking part in conversations about a shared experience or an interesting object.
9. Enlarging the speaking vocabulary by learning a new word a day from science, social studies, or other resources.
10. Making use of "Language learnings" in every school situation during the day.

Standards:

1. Ease and freedom of expression.
2. Elimination of immature speech habits such as lisping and "baby talk."
3. Correct pronunciation of words.
4. Correct enunciation of letter sounds.
5. Audible speech.
6. Good posture.
7. The habit of speaking in sentences without excessive use of "and."
8. The habit of listening courteously to others speak and taking one's turn.
9. The habit of using correct responses in such social situations as the child may be expected to meet. ("Thank you," "May I?" "How do you do?", etc.)

GUIDE FOR HANDWRITING

Materials: Teacher's Manual for the new Now We Write
(The Economy Company)

The following Economy Manual references must be fully understood by the teacher before attempting to teach handwriting.

Guiding Child Growth in Handwriting:

1. Point of View - Manual, page 1
2. Place of Handwriting in the Curriculum, page 1
3. Evaluation of Progress, page 3
4. Acquisition of Skills, page 3
5. The Practice Period, pages 4-5-6
6. Functional Writing, pages 6-7

The Beginning Period:

1. Skills necessary for learning to write:
 - a. listening ability
 - b. following directions
 - c. seeing likenesses and differences, size, shape, directions of lines
 - d. understanding left to right
 - e. handling chalk and pencils (see pages 8-9-10)
 - f. using correct board and seat positions (see pages 8-9-10)
2. Meaning as an essential element:
 - a. Preliminary isolated practice on lines and circles should be brief.
 - b. The child needs motor coordination in order to produce symbols (page 19) but the symbols should be meaningful. For example, the child will practice the straight downward stroke because he needs to make a t in his name; he practices the circle because he needs to practice o in look.
 - c. Letters are introduced and practiced as part of words, not in separate or isolated situations which are meaningless to young children.
 - d. The natural desire of every child to learn to write well is implemented with activities and practice materials that are interesting and meaningful, activities that will cause each child to look forward with pleasure to his writing period.

Suggested Method for Teaching Writing Lesson:

1. At the board
 - a. Teach lines and spaces.
 - b. Give specific instructions and demonstrations when introducing letters and words so that the child understands the correct procedure before he begins to write.
 - c. Make first the stroke that comes first (page 28). Talk about the word, its meaning and possibilities for use in speaking and writing. Words should be introduced as soon as possible. Don't wait until all letters are taught. (See 2 - c on previous page.)
 - d. Numerals are introduced as needed (page 32).
 - e. Demonstrate on the blackboard - present a good model.
 - f. Guide pupils practice at the blackboard.
 - g. Evaluate all practice work.
 - h. Correct all errors.
 - i. Teach spacing by holding eraser vertically between words.
2. On paper
 - a. Follow blackboard writing with practice on folded newsprint before introducing lined paper.
 - b. Teach lines and spaces.
 - c. Guide pupils practice on paper.
 - d. Teach spacing, using index finger between words.

Coincide with Reading Program

Teach the writing of these words beginning with the preprimer. Practice in writing familiar words will arouse interest. Write word list from We Look and See. (two weeks)

First Name	see	come	jump	go
look	and	fun	up	down
baby				

Write word list from We Work and Play. (three weeks)

work	big	the	I	car
play	little	my	make	
help	is	can	am	

Write word list from We Come and Go. (three weeks)

it	me	red	three	pumpkin
ball	we	blue	one	jack-o-lantern
to	yellow	you		Halloween

GUIDE FOR TEACHING MUSIC

In planning a guide to carry out the music program it is necessary to give constant and careful thought to its aims, always trying to see what they are and what should be done to fulfill them.

What is it that we are trying to do when we bring music to children? Why should we want to bring music to children?

We should be willing to bring all our work into line with whatever answers seem reasonable and true.

The suggested guide for using the newly adopted text Music for Living has been prepared so that each teacher may have a comprehensive view of the music material for her grade. It is intended to be helpful in progressing through the year.

The following list of five aims of the music program are from Dr. James Mursell's Music Education, Principles and Programs. Because these aims represent a composite point of view of the music staff, a committee of classroom teachers as well as music educators, they are presented here.

1. Enjoyment

Through the music program we will try in every possible way to bring children full, rich, varied experiences of musical enjoyment.

2. Success

We will endeavor to bring to children experiences of successful achievement in and through their dealings with music.

3. Discipline

We will constantly seek to bring to children disciplinary experiences of devoting their full efforts and energies to attain goals that they desire and that seem significant to them.

4. Social Development

In and through our music program we will seek to promote the social development of children by means of constructive social relationships and experiences.

5. Widening Cultural Horizons

In and through our music program we will try in every possible way to widen the cultural horizons of children and young people, and to lead them to a growing awareness of the vast range and variety of human experience.

Always we must give children significant music. "All significant music flows from human experience, and expresses the values of human living. Some of it stems from life as it was lived in bygone days; some of it from life in faraway places. Some of it stems from such great universal experiences as patriotism, worship, romance, love of country, love of home, love of nature, love of God, death, sadness, bereavement, joy. Music is not mere manipulation and arrangement of tone and rhythm. Always and everywhere it is an expressive art." Music Education, Principles and Programs - Mursell, Dr. James J.

Because of the commentaries and valuable teaching suggestions, it is expressly recommended that teachers use the Teachers Book when conducting the music lesson.

A creative response is one that comes from within, that expresses the child's own initiative and ideas.

Special references to Creative Response are to be noted in Teachers Books, Two, Three and Four on p. XII, and in Teachers Books, Five and Six on p. XIV.

In singing, using instruments, rhythmic activities, dramatizing or making up a song or a dance, all the materials are presented in such a way as to stimulate creative response in children.

Texts: Music Through the Day
I Like the City
I Like the Country

		Page
I.	September	Songs to be Memorized
	Getting Acquainted	Who Will Come With Me? 9
		Rig-a-jig-jig 11
		Jingle at the Window 17
		Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star 20
		Hickory, Dickory, Dock 21
II.	October	
	Home Sweet Home	Mothers Make a Home 25
	pp. 25-34	Birthday Song 28
	pp.110-111(seasonal)	Polly, Put the Kettle On 33
III.	November	
	Home Sweet Home	All Night, All Day 35a
	pp. 35-46	Schlaf, Kindlein, Schlaf 35b
	pp.112-115(seasonal)	The Old Gray Cat 37
		The Little Red Wagon 41
IV.	December	
	(Seasonal)	Jingle Bells 118
	pp.116-123	Away in a Manger 119
		O Christmas Tree 121
V.	January	
	Ways of Going Places	Pufferbillies 75
	pp. 71-79	Now Let Me Fly 73
		When the Train Comes Along 74
VI.	February	
	Ways of Going Places	Glory, Glory, Hallelujah 124
	pp. 80-86	America 125
	pp.124-125-126	
	(seasonal)	

VII. March	Songs to be Memorized	Page
I Like the City pp.126-128(seasonal) pp 87-97	Oh, Do You Know	97
<hr/>		
VIII. April		
I Like the City pp.126-130(seasonal) pp 98-108	Hurdy -- Gurdy	100
<hr/>		
IX. May		
I Like the Country pp. 47-70	Let's Go Walking	49
pp.126-130(seasonal)	In the Barnyard	57
	I Want to be a Farmer	58
<hr/>		
X. June		
Review	Review	
<hr/>		

References: Music Through the Day

Ten Ways of Growing Up. pp. 145-146
How music contributes to child growth and development.

Music Can Help. pp. 146-147
Through singing, rhythmic movement, instruments, creative response.

A Musical Growth Chart. p. 149
There is little growth through music unless there is at the same time growth in music. See p. 149 for developing growth in pitch, rhythm, harmony, tone quality, musical form, dynamics, minor key and relating hearing to seeing.

Using the books I Like the City and I Like the Country
Teachers may use I Like the City and I Like the Country as they would use any attractive book with children. The pictures may be shown to stimulate discussion in language and social studies; the music to see how the notes look and for telling stories about the songs.

ART EDUCATION

Every child has the right to joyful, varied art experiences as a part of his school life. The fine arts belong in every school because they enrich children's lives and help to develop maturity and emotional discipline so necessary in the lives of adults.

Through the art program in the East St. Louis schools we hope to encourage every child, the gifted, the normal and the retarded, to work at the level of his own capability in the various activities offered. These activities are arranged in the study guide as painting, drawing, modeling, constructing and appreciating.

The classroom teacher as she teaches art arranges for adequate materials and guides the activities of her children. The art supervisor gives direction to the program by coordinating the work from first grade through high school and by offering counsel and assistance to individual teachers.

GUIDE FOR TEACHING ART

Painting

Tempera Painting or (water color optional).

Finger Painting

Easel Painting

All-over designs using ovals, lines, etc. Make paintings about trips to fire department, circus, park, post office.

Murals with social studies, reading, etc.

Show Films - Nos. 321, 310, 351

Show Filmstrips - Nos. J-129, J-130, J-131, K-28.

Drawing

Large free drawings of community helpers, action figures, crowds of people, designs for booklets, textiles.

Scribble designs, drawings of family, trips, play activities, school activities, pets, imaginary people, places and objects.

Show Filmstrips - Nos. J-127, J-135

Make a mural with colored chalk.

Modeling

Farm animals, pets, people, etc. from plasticine modeling clay.

Show Films - Nos. 322, 323

Show Filmstrips - Nos. 132, K-26

Crayon Techniques

Crayon resist or paper batik, page 62. Growing with Art, Book III.

Repetition of sizes, shapes and colors in designs using crayon and tempera paint.

Learn to make simple decorative designs for booklet covers and place mats.

Use (1) All-over pattern as in potato printing

(2) Border or repetition

(3) Plaids page 58 Growing with Art, Book III

Constructing

Papier-mache' beads

Stick printing with screws, bolts, sticks, etc. and tempera

Sawdust-mache' animals, birds, people, etc.

Sack puppets, potato printing, yarn, buttons, raffia, seed and stone designs.

Build city with boxes, etc.

Filmstrips - Nos. K-27, J-128

Dioramas using hat boxes or equivalent

Appreciation

Reference Books: New Art Education Book One
New Art Education Book Two
New Art Education Book Three
Growing with Art reproductions

Book One, Two and Three

Growing with Art, Book I, II and III

"Arts and Activities"

"School Arts"

Art Films No. and Title

310 Care of Art Materials

351 Finger Painting Techniques

321 Let's Paint with Water Colors

322 Let's Play with Clay: Animals

323 Let's Play with Clay: Bowl

Filmstrip No. and Title

J-127 Drawing

J-128 Cutting and Pasting

J-129 Painting

J-130 Finger Painting

J-131 Water Coloring

J-132 Clay Modeling

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

First grade teachers have indicated that certain concepts and understandings to be developed in the Geography and History outline are too different for this grade level.

The vote of the teachers and the unanimous opinion of the first grade committee members concur in the advisability of deleting from page 3 of the present outline the following:

- III. D. Distance and Scale. Delete the three "Suggested Activities" at the top of page 3 concerned with the number of blocks from school, bar graph, and floormap.
- IV. B. Symbols. Delete the paragraph concerning the dot as a map symbol under "Understandings to be Developed."

The distribution of the 50 minutes a week allotted to Geography and History is left to the discretion of the teacher.

Throughout the Geography and History outline prepared for the Blue Book under "Understandings to be Developed," references are made to specific pages in This is the World. The new book you have received, You Are Here, has certain units or pages which correlate with items in This is the World.

For your convenience, the correlation is indicated. The Teacher's Guide references for You Are Here are included as a valuable source of enrichment for teaching the "Understandings to be Developed." The present outline is not to be changed, except for these additions.

REFERENCES TO
THIS IS THE WORLD

1. Shape of the Earth
Understandings to be
Developed
We live on the earth
p. 11
2. People Live All Over
pp.12-13
Homes and families here
and all over the earth
are alike in many ways,
although some people
talk or dress differently.
3. Distance and Scale
D. A city block is one
measure of distance.
4. Symbols
A. Colors are used to
show land and water
bodies (on colored
maps and globes.)

REFERENCES TO
YOU ARE HERE

1. Shape of the Earth
Here You Are, pp 4-7
T.G. pp 15-18
2. A Family, pp. 8-13
T.G. pp. 19-20

Faraway Families:
Japan, p. 14, T.G. pp. 23,24
China, France, Netherlands,
p. 32, T.G. pp. 45-46
Not identified, pp. 37, 38
T.G. p. 51
Middle East, p. 46,
T.G. pp. 63-64
Switzerland, p. 92, T.G.p.100
Alaska, Hawaii, pp. 112, 113
T.G. p. 118
West Germany, pp. 114, 115
T.G. p. 119
Northern Coast of Africa,
p. 116, T.G. p. 121
The Congo, p. 117,
T.G. 121-122
3. Distance and Scale
D. On to School, pp. 48-53
T.G. pp. 67-73
4. Symbols
A. Land and Water,
T.G. p. 24

STUDY GUIDE FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physical education is an important phase of education. It contributes to the development of health, and physical fitness through the medium of big muscle activities requiring strength, speed, ability and endurance; with skill in activities based on the growth and development of youth for value in later life for use in leisure time.

In addition, there are significant social and emotional outcomes. The students learn to cooperate with the group as a member of a team according to the rules of fair play and good sportsmanship. All students have an opportunity in physical education to acquire recognition and status through the acquisition of physical skills essential for participation in sports and in other desirable physical activities. Physical education is a part of education; consequently the activities in this study guide should contribute to the central purpose of education -- in induction of youth into our culture.

OBJECTIVES OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. to develop organic vigor
2. to provide bodily and emotional poise
3. to provide neuro-muscular training
4. to prevent or correct certain postural defects
5. to develop strength and endurance
6. to develop desirable moral and social qualities
7. to promote hygienic school and home life
8. to secure scientific supervision of the sanitation and safety of school buildings, playgrounds, athletic fields and equipment thereof

STANDARDIZED LESSON PLAN

1. Take a few minutes before leaving the classroom for the physical education class to explain and discuss with the children the plans for the period.
2. All children on coming into the play-room or to play area should line up at their assigned stations in squads.

3. All classes should begin the class period with a few minutes of planned calisthenics.
4. THE LESSON: Go into the planned activity.
5. EVALUATION:
 - A. Are we following the study guide? Are we covering the skills listed in the study guide? Are we going too fast or too slow to get through the unit?
 - B. In our preparation for the lesson did we plan it well enough to get across the points or skills we had planned? If we had to do it over again how much differently would we do it?
 - C. Was the class well behaved or did we lose time because of interruption from some members of the class?
 - D. Did every one in the class get a chance to participate most of the time in the lesson?

THE SCIENCE PROGRAM

The use of the Teacher's Guide is necessary to the success of the science program. The first 15 pages of the Teacher's Guides for Grades 1 through 6 are identical. They provide an orientation in science teaching, as well as an organized plan for presenting the materials of each book. No teacher should attempt to teach the course without being completely familiar with these 15 introductory pages. It is suggested that principals and teachers study these materials together in meetings before or after school until all are aware of the helps given for planning the science program. The increasing emphasis on science makes a continuous program from the primary grades through the secondary school a very important part of the curriculum.

Each teacher should carefully consider the five major questions proposed under the heading "Planning Your Science Program" (page 1.) The answers will establish the following:

1. The teacher's objectives.
2. The methods to be used to accomplish these objectives.
3. An outline of the subject matter.
4. The results or accomplished objectives.
5. References, available equipment, audio-visual aids and community resources.

The question, "Why Teach Science?" is answered in nine ways, pages 1-3. Each answer is based on a sound knowledge of the physical, mental, social and emotional growth of children at their levels of development.

GUIDE FOR TEACHING SCIENCE

Children need to acquire science concepts and principles to:

1. Interpret their environment.
2. Develop scientific ways of thinking and working.
3. Appreciate the world in which they live.

Learning the problem-solving method is as important as learning basic science concepts and principles. When a child has developed sound problem-solving techniques and skills (see Teacher's Guide, p. 4) he can take the scientific approach outside the classroom and make valuable scientific discoveries on his own.

A science program succeeds as it trains children to emphasize the scientific method of reasoning; that is, inductive reasoning, which means reaching a generalization through many experiments and observations. (See Teacher's Guide, p. 5 "The Experiment.")

(a) Objectives

Besides acquiring science concepts and principles, children need to develop the traits of -

1. An inquiring mind
2. delayed judgment
3. open-mindedness
4. the ability to reason things out to a definite conclusion

(b) Content and Organization

The five major content areas are treated at each grade level in the textbooks as follows:

- I. Plants and animals
- II. The human body
- III. The earth
- IV. The universe
- V. Matter and energy

Films and filmstrips are classified under these five headings. Lessons in health and conservation are a part of the science program.

The learning of science is considered to be a developmental process. Best results are obtained when children progress step-by-step from simple and basic concepts toward more complicated and difficult ones. Concepts are, therefore, introduced in their simplest form in the primary grades and are developed spirally grade by grade with review and new information. The depth to which a concept is developed increases with the maturity level of the child.

(c) Activities and Experiments

The science program is rich in activities, demonstrations and experiments. Pupils learn by doing - by actually formulating and solving science problems.

1. A science concept is developed during one or a series of experiences.
2. To make a concept useful to a pupil, it must be developed through as many sensory experiences as possible.
3. A concept cannot be developed without some action on the part of the pupil.
4. To tell a concept is not enough. He must have some experience with it.

"Teaching Problem Solving," (page 4) illustrates how a typical science problem may be developed and solved. Such helps as "concepts needed to understand the problem", "attitudes and skills needed in attacking the problem", "possible solutions", "gathering data", "results and conclusions" are carefully organized for the teacher's use.

Each classroom should have its science corner as one center of interest. Specimens and materials for science activities, as well as many science books, should be accessible and arranged attractively in the science corner.

Development of Major Concepts by grades (pp. 12-15) is a valuable table for the teacher's reference.

In Part 2, the lesson guides are written so as to give optimum help to the teaching. It is important that the teacher use the guide book in all of her presentations. The pages of the pupils' books are reproduced in the Teacher's Guide, therefore it must be understood that the teacher shall use the guide book in all of her teaching.

The following grade outlines are intended to serve as guides in covering the material. Usually the presentations should follow the monthly topics.

The Teacher's Guide and the regular textbook, Science For You, will be furnished each first-grade teacher. This material will serve as a basis for science instruction in the first grade.

September

What Is This? (6-7)
The Sky (8-15)
Where Do You Live? (16-27)

October

What Makes This Light?
What Can A Magnet Do?
Animals (40-46)

November

Who Are You? (47-55)
Machines (56-63)

December

What Things Float? (64-67)
What Is Air? (68-73)

January

Water in the Air (74-79)
From Summer to Winter (80-83)
East and West (84-85)

February

Stars (86-89)
Planets (90-99)

March

How Do Seeds Grow? (100-109)
Heat (110-115)

May

Stop! Look! (130-133)
Will It Grow" (134-137)
Frogs (138-142)
Insects (143-148)

April

Colors (116-119)
Sounds (120-125)
How Can You Tell? (126-129)

June

Birds (149-155)
Find Them (156-157)

COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS

In order to qualify for Title I funds, the East St. Louis Public School System made an extensive study of social and economic deprivations within its community. Determination of school attendance areas having high concentration of children from low income families was made.

Economic criteria used in determining high concentration of disadvantaged children are:

The number of children in school attendance areas who received free text books for the year 1966-67 based on family incomes under \$2,000 and those children whose families were receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children.

The mean amount of deprivation throughout the school district was obtained by dividing the total number of economically disadvantaged children in our schools by the total school enrollment. The percentage of disadvantaged students per school attendance area was determined by using the data above. Those schools whose percentage of disadvantaged children was greater than the percentage of disadvantaged children in the district as a whole were classified as centers having high concentration of deprived children.

Educational criteria used in determining high concentrations of disadvantaged children were results of standardized reading tests, percentage of retentions one or more years per school, and the results of standardized test data.

The following school attendance areas have been established beginning with the school having the highest concentration of disadvantaged students.

1. Longfellow Elementary School	76%
2. Garfield Elementary School	66%
3. Robinson Elementary School	65%
4. Lafayette Elementary School	63%
5. Dunbar Elementary School	61%
6. Lucas Elementary School	61%
7. Franklin Elementary School	60%
8. Johnson Elementary School	59%
9. Webster Elementary School.	59%
10. Carver Elementary School	58%
11. Garrison Elementary School	57%
12. Easterly Elementary School	55%
13. Rock Junior High School	54%
14. Washington Elementary School	52%
15. Lincoln Senior High School	48%
16. Hughes-Quinn Junior High School	47%
17. Monroe Elementary School	47%
18. Brown Elementary School	45%
19. Cannady Elementary School	44%
20. Golden Garden Elementary School	44%
21. Park Elementary School	42%
22. Attucks Elementary School	42%
23. Alta Sita Elementary School	38%
24. Grahmann Elementary School	38%
District-Wide Average	38%

A SUMMARY OF FEDERAL PROGRAMS (TITLE I)
IN THE EAST ST. LOUIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A. Project Challenge:

A program to help children achieve more in school. Project Challenge uses three approaches to help raise the achievement level of pupils:

1. Instructional Materials...films, filmstrips, transparencies, tapes, records, maps, charts, globes and other audio-visual materials... in 24 public and 4 parochial schools.

2. Elementary School Libraries...libraries are established in each elementary school media center.
3. Parental Involvement...film festivals and discussions are held once per month in Title I schools for parental education, guidance and involvement.

(B) Project Conquest

A remedial program to help children read and achieve at their grade level. This project also has two reading clinics for boys and girls who need more help with reading than the classroom teachers have time to give. One clinic serves elementary school pupils and the other serves secondary school pupils.

Five additional educational supervisors are employed under Project Conquest to help teachers plan for and teach pupils, especially those who are behind in their classes.

Another service of Project Conquest is in School-Community relations --- aides act as a valuable link between the home, school and community.

(C) Project Kindergarten

Designed exclusively for disadvantaged children between the ages of five and six.

Project Kindergarten aims to serve the critically disadvantaged with a readiness program to compensate for their meager background. The readiness program is closely correlated with the curriculum and philosophy of School District 189.

(D) Project Re-Entry

A night high school for drop-outs. This program is designed to help people finish high school who have dropped out of the regular day program, or who have been put out because of misconduct or other reasons.

(E) Project Rescue

A program to evaluate, treat and rehabilitate children who are emotionally disturbed. This program will help disturbed children understand their problems, conflicts, emotions, strengths and needs. Project Rescue aims to help children develop independence, improve relations with their parents, teachers and other children. After the child improves his self-understanding and his relationships, it is hoped that his school performance and experience will be more successful.

(F) Project Speak

A program to provide daily oral language improvement opportunities for pupils. Project Speak uses three approaches to improve, remediate, and enrich the language of disadvantaged children:

1. This program provides specially trained oral language teachers who visit classrooms to give special oral language lessons designed to correct poor speech habits, to develop correct voice use and to develop the ability to use standard English.

This project provides a speech atmosphere at school where children hear good speech and are encouraged to use good speech.

2. Speech defective children at five parochial schools are provided speech correction services by a speech therapist via a Travelab mobile unit. This unit is a complete speech and hearing laboratory.
3. The Project Speak Pre-School Language Development and Parent Education Program involves parent education and language training for themselves and their pre-school children.

(G) Project V --- Vim, Vigor and Vitality

A program to improve the physical fitness of pupils. This project aims to improve the school achievement of

pupils by improving their physical development, and by giving them a knowledge and practice of good health habits.

Physical Education teachers and/or supervisors are on duty at each 3 V center to offer health and physical fitness instruction to pupils. Exercises, games, rhythms and sports provide fun and learning experiences for the children.

(These programs, with the exception of Project Re-Entry, include services for first grade children.)

THE SPECIAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The Department of Special Education provides the services of specially trained professional personnel who are qualified to teach children who are:

1. Orthopedically handicapped
2. Educable and trainable mentally retarded
3. Partially sighted
4. Hard of hearing
5. Speech Defectives
6. Socially maladjusted

First grade children are eligible for any of the above programs. In addition, psychological testing of first grade children and homebound instruction are general duties of the Special Education Department.

Referrals of atypical first grade children may be made to any local health or educational department of the school district; or, the principal, teachers, school nurse, psychologist, and others having contact with students may refer them to other resources available to exceptional children in the community. First priority is given to services made available by the local school system.

Services provided by voluntary and official agencies in the community other than the school system are equally important because these, as a rule, take care of cases which cannot qualify for or supplement the services provided by the school (one such agency is that of the Division of Services for Crippled Children which is operated by the University of Illinois and has centers throughout the state.)

Familiarity with state institutions, their locations, and the types of cases taken by them is usually most helpful. A directory of out-of-state (Missouri) private and public institutions should be available. Information about private and public agencies in the state and elsewhere can be obtained by telephoning the director of special education or by writing the proper person in the state department of education or the Children's Bureau in the Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.

Knowledge of the resources available also includes information about the diagnostic services available locally or accessible in nearby places.

The essential points are that special work with exceptional pupils should not be undertaken without a prior thorough examination and advice of an appropriate specialist, and that the principal and local school authorities should know where the specialists may be reached.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, AIDS AND RESOURCES

In East St. Louis the classroom teacher has a wide variety of instructional devices and resources available. The careful selection and planning for the use of these resources by the teacher can do much to accelerate and broaden the learning of the children. The following information is listed to help the teacher in procuring resources and aids for the class.

Many resources are available directly in the schools. These include:

Books:

Each school has a collection of text, reference, and library books. Every year schools are allocated funds for the purchase of library books and supplementary books. Textbooks are procured on a rental basis. The East St. Louis School System also takes advantage of the Title II library book plan

Prepared Materials:

Every school has a modest collection of filmstrips, slides, study prints, records and charts which can be obtained by the teacher by contacting the audio-visual

center in the school building, or by ordering these from the Media Center (for Title I schools) or the school system's main audio-visual department. Each year the Audio-Visual Department is allocated funds for the purchase of additional materials.

Television and Radio:

The East St. Louis School System is planning on future contracts with the nearby educational television station. Guides will be available to the teachers so that the pupils can be prepared for the lessons.

Individual programs of educational interest have been produced on local radio stations by various departments of the East St. Louis Public School System; however, there is neither a city or statewide radio network.

Supplies:

Supplies are obtained through the principal's office. Teachers should consult the supply catalog on file in the office for materials available. Requisitions must be marked for grade levels. All requests should be channeled through the principal who will send the requisitions to the Central Office for processing. Requests for materials should be made well in advance of the time for their use.

Equipment:

The following Audio-visual equipment will be found in each school:

- 16 mm sound projector
- Slide projector
- 2 x 2 slide and filmstrip projector
- Opaque projector (some schools)
- Screens
- Magnetic tape recorder
- Overhead projector
- Listening kits
- Radio
- Record players

These should be ordered through the building media specialist or technicians or the audio-visual supervisor.

The classroom teacher also has available many services from the community which take the form of field trip experiences or guest experts, but which may also include materials loaned to the classroom. A very important part of the planning for a field trip is the filing of a proper request. All field trips require permission from the superintendent's office. Permission should be requested far enough in advance to assure approval. The field trip application blanks and parents' permission blanks are located in the principal's office.

The East St. Louis Public Library:

This institution encourages classes to visit the Central Youth Library on a field trip basis. The teacher should plan for such a trip with the public librarian and with the school principal. The library in cooperation with the school system provides two bookmobiles which visit every elementary school within the district on a regularly scheduled cycle.

Community Field Trips:

The Metro East (Metropolitan St. Louis Area) community offers a large variety of valuable field trip experiences. The Gateway Arch and the new baseball stadium are recent additions. Forest Park and its zoo and public museum remain a national touring attraction.

Record Keeping:

The first job of an organized school program is to learn essential facts about the individual students so that these students may be helped to realize the opportunities that formal education affords them. This analysis of the individual in terms of his assets and liabilities at a given point in time is referred to by some school authorities as the "individual inventory" or the "individual appraisal" service. The analysis of the individual service is comprised of three kinds of activity

1. Collection of essential information on the individual student
2. Processes of recording, filing, and storing this information.
3. The uses that are to be made of this information.

An analysis of the individual is based upon information gained from a number of sources at different points in the developmental span of the individual. For purposes of classification, we might divide the information to be gained on each individual into the following categories:

1. the identifying data gained from the school entrance interview
2. the information provided by his previous school performance
3. the information gained from standardized instruments
4. the information gained from the students themselves
5. the information gained from significant others in the school district.

APPENDIX D

OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESCHOOL PROGRAM FOR SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

- A. Provide learning in all areas of the nursery school or kindergarten through teacher verbalization.

Areas or Centers of Interest:

1. Table Activities: Peg boards, puzzles, hammer nail sets, etc.
2. Doll Corner: Stove, refrigerator, sink, mirror, doll stroller, doll beds, baby buggy and pans.
3. Block, Truck and Accessories Area.
4. Music Corner: Record player, rhythm instruments.
5. Library Corner: Books, scrapbooks, pictures.
6. Creative Arts Area: Paints, crayons, dough, clay, collage.
7. Playground: Swings, climbing frames, sliding board, sand box.
 - a. Initially, simple labeling (naming) of all objects the child manipulates or encounters.
 - b. Providing the verbal mediators for all experiences:
Examples:
 - (1) "Darryl is hitting the pounding bench."
 - (2) "Katy is pushing the doll stroller."
 - (3) "Bob is sliding down the sliding board."
 - (4) "Ricky is building a road with the blocks."
 - c. Developing concepts of color, number, size, shape, texture, position, distance, direction, quantity, weight. (Again, through teacher verbalization in all areas of the playroom - during free play time, as well as during group work.)

Examples:

- (1) Katy is setting the table in the doll corner. "How many cups? Let's count them, one, two, three."
- (2) Ricky has two plastic squeeze bottles, each with a primary color. As he squeezes them onto the paper, he sees a third color formed. "Blue and yellow make green, don't they, Ricky?"
- (3) "Phil is swinging up and down."
- (4) Songs, fingerplays and action games.

- B. Provide experiences which will develop auditory discrimination. (Again, in all areas of the nursery school or kindergarten, teachers and aides encourage the child's exploration of sound and talk with the children.)

Examples:

1. Sounds heard outdoors on the playground: i.e. Placing an ear against the hollow metal upright of a swing. Sounds of trucks, buses, cars.
2. Use of musical instruments.
3. Use of stories with emphasis on sound and children's participation in making sounds.
4. Use of songs and fingerplays.

- C. Provide field trips to explore the real world, as:

Animals

Transportation

Food and stores

Community services: postal, health, firehouse, police.

Reinforce and relate these to the children's motoric needs through dramatic play and other methods of follow-up.

- D. Provide science experiences which give concrete form to the development of thinking and reasoning: curiosity and exploration.
1. Magnets which can be used to test a variety of substances either arranged on the table, i. e. buttons, paper clips, small forms from hammer-nail sets, or around the room.
 2. Seeds to grow, handle, open.
 3. Bowls of water with styrofoam and nails for concepts of weight and volume.
 4. Pets to feel, watch, take care of.
- E. Help the child develop purposive learning activities and ability to attend for long periods of time:
1. Initially through group singing and fingerplays.
 2. Story time.
 3. Discussion and/or show-and-tell elicited later.
 4. Use of color cubes, counting frames, peg boards, object cards, and lotto games, pictures for incongruities and for matching.
- F. Help the child develop good self-concepts and sense of mastery of immediate environment.
1. Through teacher acceptance of children.
 2. By encouraging independence and exploration.
 3. By giving praise for the efforts and products made by children.

The Readiness Centers Program is designed to meet the needs of disadvantaged children ages 3-6.

Retarded in language development, the children are given individual attention to help build vocabularies and to provide opportunities for practice in verbalization. Group discussion and stories also aid the language development of the pre-school-age child.

Opportunities to use a variety of creative arts materials, paints, crayons, dough, clay and collage allow the children to develop manipulative dexterity and to both express and impress their ideas and feelings through and on these media.

Manipulative materials of many types are provided to help the children develop hand-eye coordination and finger dexterity, as well as practice in shape differentiation.

Science and nature experiences not only provide further opportunities for language development, but also encourages curiosity and the examination and exploration of materials.

Field trips are used to develop verbal abilities and to expand the children's understanding of the world around them. They are also valuable in developing their understanding of many varied concepts.

In the housekeeping corner children can explore adult roles in dramatic play. This play also provides understanding of the children, as teachers observe their re-enactment of home life. Socialization occurs both in the doll corner and on the play ground, as children share and take turns.

As the teachers encourage independence and the exploration of many materials, the children develop interests and skills which will help them when they enter the school system. For the teachers acceptance of the children and recognition of each individual child's effort and abilities is help them develop better self concepts; the awareness that they are capable of achieving and are worthwhile individuals.

APPENDIX E

CURRICULUM IN THE PRESCHOOL READINESS CENTERS

Brief Description

The types of activities conducted daily in all of the preschool readiness centers may be identified as follows:

1. Free play (indoors and outdoors) 30 to 60 minutes
2. Structured activity ("academic" activities) - 25 to 35 minutes
3. Group activity (art, music, show-and-tell, story-time) 20 to 25 minutes
4. Lunch - 40 minutes
5. Cleanup, toileting, teethbrushing - 5 to 15 minutes each

Occasionally, the day's activity plan is altered for field trips, medical testing or as a result of visitors, shortage of staff, low attendance or other factors. Similarly, the day's routine schedule, which differs in the centers, is adaptable to change whenever necessary.

The curriculum, in general, consists of the following facets:

Music

Art

Creative Dramatics

Language Arts (vocabulary, verbal usage)

Science

Social Studies

Pre-arithmetic activities (counting, identifying numerals, associating quantities with number labels)

Appropriate activities and experiences are conducted and provided for each facet in all of the centers. Certain facets, specifically pre-arithmetic, social studies and

language art activities, receive more emphasis than others, but each is regarded as important and is given some attention periodically.

Evaluation of Curriculum in Relation to the Stated Objectives of the Program*

An evaluation of the curriculum in relation to the goals of the program is difficult to present, mainly because of the terms in which the goals of the program are stated. The goals or objectives may serve as guides for the teacher in planning and conducting activities, but they neither define standards for evaluating teacher performance or children's progress, nor do they specify content for curriculum. Thus, the diversity of routines, activities, approaches, themes and topics throughout the six centers is great, and there is no common curricular framework which may be said to apply to all the centers.

From observation of the activities and operations in the preschool centers, it would seem that all of the objectives of the preschool program are being met to a **reasonable extent**. **The staff members in the centers do** provide to some extent those experiences, and the assistance which the goals specify. That is, they do provide:

1. Encouragement for learning through teacher verbalization
2. Experiences to aid in the development of auditory discrimination
3. Field trips to explore the real world
4. Science experiments to give concrete form to the development of thinking and reasoning, curiosity and exploration
5. Help for the child to develop purposive learning activities and ability to attend for long periods of time
6. Help for the child to develop good self-concepts and a sense of mastery of his immediate environment.

*See Appendix D

Thus, if the question of "success" of the curriculum program is that of whether the preschool staff did not provide these services for the children, it could be said that there has been "success." If, on the other hand, "success" is to be determined by any other criteria, the question is unanswerable, for there are no such criteria specified for the evaluation of the program. If "success" is measured in terms of test performance and academic achievement in public school, then there seems to be some question of the effectiveness of the preschool readiness centers approach.

The major criticism of the program, thus, appears to be the lack of specific, concrete goals toward which to strive. It is neither known, nor conceptualized, as to what, during a specific length of time, the preschool experience for the child is to be like, in terms of relative emphasis of curricular facets and/or the distribution of class time for these facets. There is no stated goal as to specific concepts or knowledge the child is to have grasped by the time he leaves the preschool, the specific kinds of sensory and concrete experiences he is to have, and in the broadest sense, how much of his classroom time is to be devoted to those informative, intellectual experiences directly relevant to his future academic success.

It is not difficult to understand the lack of these specific goals, however, as in spite of an awareness of the need for such, it is a difficult way of implementing them. Though there has been increasing recognition of the inadequacy of the "traditional" nursery school approach for disadvantaged children, no real attempt has been made to develop an academically oriented type of program as a realistic and desired substitute.

(SAMPLE)

APPENDIX F

PARENT INTEREST CHART

Parent: _____

Address: _____

Date of Contact: _____

	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Current Events</u>	<u>Problems</u>	<u>Politics</u>	<u>Preschool</u>
<u>Scoring</u>					1.Volunteer Program
1.Excessively					2.Parent Meeting
2.Normally					3.School Activities
3.Very little					4.Medical- Dental Program
4.Not at all					5.Improve- ments
					6.Ideas

Page #2

<u>Other Interests</u>	<u>Education</u>	<u>Gossip</u>	<u>Black Power</u>	<u>Racial Issues</u>

F1